Socio-cultural perspective of Language Teaching, Learning and Acquisition

Socio-cultural perspective of Language Teaching, Learning and Acquisition

Dr. Karunakaran Thirunavukkarasu
Shinas Vocational College, Oman (on Sabbatical Leave)
English Language Teaching Centre, University of Jaffna, Sri Lanka

Prof. Rajendran Sankaravelayuthan
Amrita Vishwa Vidyapeethm, Coimbatore

Dr. N. Gejeshwari
Assistant Professor of English
Bharathidasan University constituent College, Orathand, Tamil Nadu

sarasavi Publishers
30 Stanley Thilakaratne Mawatha, Nugegoda, Sri Lanka

Prologue

Language learning and teaching is a huge area having mountains of literature. It is an enormous field of study and requires extensive study to understand the growth of this field and depict the state of art. When we attempt to write this book on **Socio-cultural perspective of Language Teaching Learning and Acquisition** we have understood that we have put our legs in unfathomable deep sea. Though there are countless number of books, papers and research materials dealing about the teaching and learning of language, we found there is a necessity to bring out a document focusing on the socio-cultural dimension of language teaching and learning. Society and culture cannot be separated from language. They are bedfellows. So we felt the need for explicitly spelling out the relation between language, society and culture.

We try to cover many areas in the present study of socio-cultural aspects of language learning and teaching. Though we are very ambitious we are constrained by many limitations. We should admit here that we have covered only certain aspects of social and cultural dimensions of language teaching and learning.

We hope that the book will pave ways to those who aspire to learn socio-cultural aspect of language learning and teaching and like know more about this field. We have referred a rich source of literature while venturing to write this book. Altogether the book opens up avenues to those want to explore further on this subject.

CHAPTER 1

LANGUAGE

1.1. Introduction

Interest in language is not a recent development. It goes back to centuries from now. The oldest grammar we know, the one written by Panini in 300 B.C., analyses the speech sounds of Sanskrit and its grammatical structure. The phenomenon of language has puzzled and attracted people's minds in so many different ways in the course of time. It may not be possible to explore all them here. Interest in the numerous languages of the world has led to the scientific study of linguistic phenomena, particularly in their morphological aspects. This has given rise to two main types of classification - a structural type, based on the relative degree of synthesis of the words and the way in which various parts of a word are attached to it, and a genetic type of classification.

The genetic classification is based on comparative studies with regard to phonetic and structural changes. Through a careful study of phonetic changes and changes in vocabulary, a theoretical reconstruction may be made of the original language from which the present existing languages have stemmed, or (since the interest in the origin of languages has faded) of the distribution of languages and dialects. These studies may also prove a valuable aid in studying the patterns of population

changes. Such studies necessitate thorough investigation not only of the phonetic or sound elements but also of the phonemes or functionally significant units which make up a language pattern. Apart from this scientific use, the study of speech sounds has its practical application in the field of language teaching.

The sociological emphasis is divulged on the language as it is a part of a social system. Language may be regarded not only as a tool but as social action calling forth counter-action. The psychologists have studied language from a different angle. Their contribution lies in the psychology of communication. Generally this field ranges from the mechanical aspects (phonetics, perception of speech) to the socio-psychological patterns of communication and barriers to communication, learning habits, and distortion of testimony or of rumor.

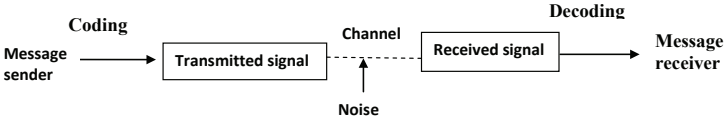
For many the study of language means the only key to the world of literature. They struggle valiantly to master speech sounds, grammatical rules, idiom and vocabulary, but their ultimate aim is to enjoy the literary efforts of others or to express themselves in that way.

The various aspects of language are all interrelated. Therefore the special approaches should not be seen as separate fields of study, but rather as a specific emphasis.

1.2. Language as a Means of Communication

Language has been defined or explained by many scholars in various ways. Language is basically an instrument of communication. Language can be expressed using sounds, letters and signs. In the case of sounds the medium of communication is through air. The language which is acquired by us comes out from our brain by making use of vocal apparatus. The vocal apparatus helps us to express language in sound form. We make use of air stream present in the vocal tract for the production of sounds. The vibration of articulators present in the vocal tract produces

sounds. The vibration of vocal apparatus causes the air outside to vibrate there by the sound is converted into vibration of air. The vibrated air reaches our ears and strikes the tympanic membrane present in our ear and causes it to vibrate. The nerves present near the tympanic membrane receive the vibration and convert into nerve pulses. This is understood in the brain as language if we gave learned the grammar of the language which the sounds belong. The following diagram will show the communication by language using sound signal.



The speaker sends a message by coding it in terms of sounds or letters. It is called transmitted signal. The transmitted signal is transferred to a channel called auditory channel which helps in carrying transmitted signal to the receiver. In the case of letter the channel is visual channel and in the case of Braille (for blinds) the channel is tactile channel. There are many other channels based on the characteristics of the transmitted signal. The transmitted signal get distorted or diminished while travelling through the channel. This change is called noise. Due to noise the received signal is not same as that of the transmitted signal. Language being an efficient communication tool it always contains extra information in the transmitted signal. So the loss due to nose is compensated or understood by the extra information in the transmitted signal. Thus it is possible to reconstruct the full message. The scholars used to claim that there are 50 redundancies in the language. The received signal is encoded into message again by the receiver.

The communicative aspect of language is very crucial for human beings. Indeed for many people, the social aspects of language are predominantly contained in those of communication

between individuals or groups. But obviously communication is possible without the use of language while language may be used for other reasons than direct communication. There is in fact at present at tendency to over-estimate the communicative aspect at the cost of a more inclusive approach to language.

The concept of communication has been narrowed down to its practical component of transfer and exchange of information and ideas. Thus language, and more particularly speech, is often popularly thought of as a kind of magic, hard to achieve but worth striving for in a perfectionistic manner, for the more refined the tool the better the communication. This however is only part of the picture. Preceding the concept of communication is the approach to language as an abstraction from the social situation, in other words as a system of significant symbols, referring to a social context.

The manipulation of these symbols makes out the main body of social activities. Language then is in the first place a social action. It is as a form of social as well as symbolic behavior. Its symbolic behavior arouses the interest of social scientists. This approach is a natural concomitant of the development of the social sciences. In earlier times the main interest in language was centered on the origin of languages or the question of whether language was divine or rational in character. The modern social scientist, studying language as social action, may distinguish more than one type of communication:

- The direct external type of communication in which a message is communicated from one individual to one or more others
- A more indirect or diffuse external type in which communication takes place regardless of the message communicated
- The internal type viz. the communication taking place between an individual and himself.

1.2.1. External Communication

Gestures (including language or vocal gesture), according to Mead, "become significant symbols when they implicitly arouse in an individual making them the same responses which they explicitly arouse or are supposed to arouse in other individuals." (Mead, 1934: 47). There are various levels of abstraction in the threefold relationship between social situation, which serves as a referent, symbols used by the speaker, and response of the hearer.

In fact a person pointing to a steaming coffee may remark to someone else that it is hot. The hearer observing the same visual signs and hearing the remark will agree. The interpretation is based on the recurrence of a similar social situation or a whole series of similar situations in the past. Since both speaker and hearer have experienced similar social situations in the past, the sight of the steaming dish will be interpreted by them in the same way. They both have internalized in their experience the social situation and the symbol used as an abstraction of that situation. Because of their shared experiences the symbol "hot" may be used also if the visual signs are absent. A speaker may tell about hot coffee in a situation where no such coffee is present. Yet his symbol will not fail to arouse the desired response in his listeners. At a more advanced level of abstraction, he will speak of a "hot" contest or a "heated" argument arid his listeners will understand the meaning of his words since the symbol arouses in them the picture of all previous referents.

On the other hand, it may so happen that speaker and listener do not share the same internalized experiences. In that case they do not have the same frame of reference. So the symbols used will fail to arouse the same response. Thus many fathers found that their pre-school age children could not interpret the symbol "office" since there was no adequate referent for it in the social situation the children could envisage. It is of course

possible to refer the symbol to the office-building, but not to the whole complex of interpersonal relations the symbol stands for.

Such difficulties in interpretation of symbols caused by a lack of common internalized experiences are even more marked in the field of foreign languages. Words which seem the equivalents of words in a foreign language often turn out to refer to entirely different referents. Take for example the word "family." When American or British speakers use this word, the symbol stands for a rather similar social unit in the U.S. and in Britain. But the words for "family" in Indian languages, though appears to be interchangeable with the English word, the social unit to which these words refer may be a different one.

Even if parties involved in communication employ the same language as a medium of communication, the differences in socio-cultural background are not eliminated. For example, assume a communication between English speaking foreigner and English knowing Tamil speaker. Normally no communication difficulties would be expected between these two parties. Yet communication may fail as both parties employed the foreign tongue with reference to their own differing socio-cultural background. The simple fact, for instance, is the foreign English speaker may not understand the meaning of ‘fast’ conveyed by the English speaking Tamil speaker.

Modern methods of mass-communication entail their own specific problems. The use of mass-media permits an enormous increase in the total volume of external communication. The enlargement of scale however also sets its own limitations. Mass communication is directed to an anonymous mass and responses are correspondingly vague and often difficult to measure.

Language allows people to communicate with great precision. The studies on communication through language focus on how people use language in specific discourse contexts, to share information with others, and to persuade or otherwise

affect them. The overall goal is to understand how language is actually used, when it is used effectively, and why. It is generally assumed that in communication through language, the emphasis falls on the transfer of a message. The factors that are considered important in the process of communication are explained through models. But the message has been analysed as being of an informative or expressive character.

There is however a second, more indirect type of external communication. This has been termed "phatic communion." Phatic communication is verbal or non-verbal communication that has a social function, such as to start a conversation, greet someone, or say goodbye, rather than an informative function. Learners sometimes find it difficult to recognise phatic communication. For example, a learner may interpret the American English phatic structure 'What's up?' as a question that needs an answer. Waving hello is non-verbal phatic communication and saying 'How's it going?' is verbal.

It is a fundamental tendency of humans to congregate, to be together. Speech binds them together, accentuates their sense of belonging. The following remark of Malinowski is well founded: "another man's silence is not a reassuring factor, but on the contrary, something alarming and dangerous." The essential feature of communication is that some conversation is going on. The information that is imparted through communication is secondary. The communication is there but it is an indirect communication in the sense that it is not dependent on the meaning of the words. The sound of the words and the context in which they are spoken are sufficient to bring about the communication.

The bonds between speaker and hearer created by linguistic communication are not necessarily symmetrical. The speaker giving the information or uttering his ideas derives a far greater satisfaction from this act than the hearer. However, there is always an opportunity to reverse the roles so that the flow of

words goes in the other direction, which will also change the pattern of satisfaction. (Malinowski). In this context it is also worth noting the importance of the play element in language. As Huizinga (has pointed out, the play element is a function of culture, a given magnitude, "existing before culture itself existed, accompanying it and pervading it from the earliest beginning right up to the phase of civilization we are now living in." (Huizinga 1950: 4). In language this play element is very prominent. Not only is language pre-eminently suitable to convey humour and lightheartedness, but in many languages a playful element can be detected in some morphological aspects.

Thus in Tamil the insertion of syllable *ka* between syllables of a word reflects this play element (e.g. *Kamala* is converted to *kakamakalaka*). Often words of rather similar sounds are combined. These words in combination have a pleasing sound when spoken. Here evidently both rhythm and sound of the spoken words bring about the play element and the satisfaction derived from pronouncing or hearing the words comes very close to that derived from music. It shows that the borderlines between such cultural elements as music, dance and speech are often very artificial. Here again we find communication through vocal gestures but independent of the meaning content.

1.2.2. Internal Communication

Thus far we have discussed some aspects of communication between persons or groups of persons. There is also the communication between an individual and himself, or between man and the supernatural in prayer or exhortation. Such communication between an individual and himself is based on the existence of a system of linguistic symbols. "Only in terms of gestures which are significant symbols can thinking- which is simply an internalized or implicit conversation of the individual with himself by means of gestures- take place." (Mead, p. 48).

This seems applicable also to the processes involved in memory. To remember something we need the guidance of signs. By means of language the individual can reach back into the past and generally he cannot reach further back than the period at which signs became available to him. Habits, feelings, sensations, experiences generally become associated with language symbols. By reorganizing these symbols past experiences can be called back and future experiences imagined. In other words it is the named things, which play an important role in memory and imagination. Remembering and especially recalling is an act of reconstruction- of reorganizing symbols. By means of language an ordering is possible of the chaos of impressions. Objects or things become familiar even if we know little else about them but their names.

By naming or at least by attempts to describe them, we seem to get a hold on things. Things, which cannot be named, cannot be compared to other known things, cannot be described in any intelligible way, and, in fact, are things "out of this world." They do not develop beyond the stage of vague sensations, emotions, fears or forebodings. We are aware of "something," but we do not know what, and generally we fear the unknown, nameless things. As soon as the thing has been named our uncertainty disappears. We now "know" it. The process is one of labeling, which is fundamental to all social life.

All societies have their own way of labeling things, or ordering the raw material of experience according to a certain system. People become so accustomed to using these labels and to apply their way of ordering, that they become unconscious of the fact that the labels are not the things themselves, but only indicators, and that their way of ordering experience is for the most part arbitrary and inevitably distorts reality. Childhood experiences viewed in this light and especially the pre-language experiences, deal for the most part with "raw" experience materials, not yet labeled and not or insufficiently systematized.

This has been related to the phenomenon of childhood-amnesia, the fact that most individuals remember practically nothing of the period before their fifth year.

Philosophers and ethnolinguists have likewise recognized the compelling force of linguistic categories in the processes of ordering experience. Dewey states: "The chief intellectual classifications that constitute the working capital of thought, have been built up for us by our mother tongue." (Dewey, p. 235). Whorf goes even further and asserts that "the forms of a person's thoughts are controlled by inexorable laws of patterns of which he is unconscious. These patterns are the unperceived intricate systematization of his own language." (Wharf, p. 252). Language not only embodies meaning, it also prescribes to a great extent the nature of the meaning we attach to our experiences.

1.3. Language as a Social Phenomenon

As a social phenomenon language consists of acts, temporal and transitory. Its function is to coordinate social behavior according to the demands of the situation. Language gives meaning to social behavior as an integral part of social process. Simultaneously language derives its meaning from social behavior. The relationship between language, systems of thought, and other patterns of behavior can be traced back to the metaphysics underlying each culture. Wharf has shown in his exposition of the Hopi world view that each society has its own model of the universe and all observable phenomena of the universe can be accounted for and accurately described in the language of its people. Language imposes upon the universe the two separate concepts of space and time. The Hopi universe is described as comprising two different cosmic forms. They are the manifested and objective on the one hand and the manifesting and subjective on the other. The former comprises everything accessible to the senses without distinguishing between present

and past. But it excludes everything which in our thinking would be future. The latter concept deals with everything that is subjective, mental, and sacred. Hence it also includes notions of expectancy, desire, purposive thought into future action, a state or emerging into manifestation (which has been described as the "expective form" in Wharf's terminology of Hopi grammar). (Wharf 59/60).

Language pervades social life. It is the principal vehicle for the transmission of cultural knowledge. It is the primary means by which we gain access to the contents of others' minds. Language is implicated in most of the phenomena that lie at the core of social psychology: attitude change, social perception, personal identity, social interaction, intergroup bias and stereotyping, attribution, and so on. Moreover, for social psychologists, language typically is the medium by which subjects' responses are elicited, and in which they respond: in social psychological research, more often than not, language plays a role in both stimulus and response.

Just as language use pervades social life, the elements of social life constitute an intrinsic part of the way language is used. Linguists regard language as an abstract structure that exists independently of specific instances of usage (much as the calculus is a logico-mathematical structure that is independent of its application to concrete problems), but any communicative exchange is situated in a social context that constrains the linguistic forms participants use. How these participants define the social situation, their perceptions of what others know, think and believe, and the claims they make about their own and others' identities will affect the form and content of their acts of speaking.

1.3.1. Language and Society

Language is central to our existence. It is hard to think of ourselves, our societies, and culture without language. Language

is a primary means of socialization. It interacts with the social, political and economic power structures. It is the primary medium for the construction and transmission of knowledge and for the articulation of ideas. In short, language constitutes humans and their identities. All people either utilize varieties of a language or use two or more languages to respond to a whole range of affective and interpersonal demands; language by definition must be defined as multilingualism. So it is necessary to examine the relationship between language and society with respect to the nature of language.

The juxtaposition of the terms language and society is deceptive. It may imply that language and society are two separate entities and that language can be disentangled from its social context to be compared to the patterns of interpersonal relationship. Actually language is an integral part of social structure. Any attempt to study either of the two in isolation entails a certain amount of distortion. Language and society are inseparable partners. One cannot exist without the other. Language is both a system of communication between individual and society. All the societies are having their own language system guided by social phenomena. Language reflects society's culture, ideology, attitude and many other aspects which guide them to be a member of that society.

1.3.2. Language and Social Structure

The interrelationship between language and social structure is obviously an intimate and complex, which is of particular interest to the sociologist. How these phenomena may be observed in reality is worth considering. Let us assume that a number of individuals are engaged in discussion in a certain social situation. The observation of sociologist on this situation is not in the first place concerned with the speech sounds or the vocabulary of the speakers. They will be concerned about

them if these linguistic phenomena are sociologically relevant. What he wants to know is, for example, what is the topic of the discussion? What are the social roles of the different speakers and what is the nature of their interrelationship? What groups or categories do they represent? Is their group membership or status reflected in their speech or in a specific terminology used in addressing them? Why does this particular person speak more often than others? Who listens attentively when he speaks? Who does not?

The observer may note that some societies have what has been termed a "talking culture," while in other social systems the "strong, silent man" is valued. (Lapiere and Farnsworth, 1949). He may also find that specific types of linguistics behavior are consistently accompanied by specific other forms of symbolic behavior (gestures, facial expression, dress, ritual). It will be noted the sociologist interprets linguistic acts in terms of a network of interpersonal relationships, i.e. in terms of social structure. Here two significant aspects may be distinguished. Studies of sociocultural systems have shown that all socially significant categories and processes have their linguistic counterpart. Thus we find that the well-known criteria of age, sex, occupation, etc. have found expression in terms for different age groups and of seniority (e.g. terms for older brother, younger brother) and special terms for male and female roles and, in some societies, separate types of address for male and female speakers.

There are also terms for specific occupations and affiliations and terms expressive of kinship and affinity. This notion of the power of the word is a general one, and not without reason. The very first contact a child makes with his social world is through vocal action. His cry for food or for comfort immediately brings response. Later on, his first words again entail prompt action from the adult world. "Words are to a child active forces, they give him an essential hold on reality. . . . The word acts on the thing and

the thing releases the word in the human mind." (Malinowski, p. 321)

There is a conviction that words are powerful forces in the essence of verbal magic. It may take the form of the application of magical words to bring about health, growth, or fertility. It may also consist of avoidance of such value-laden, dangerous words. Thus among many fishing and hunting communities, special "occupational" or "secret" languages have developed. The obvious reason for this specialization is the desire to avoid taboo-words, which may frighten away the animals, or else to propitiate the deities of water, wind, rain and other unpredictable elements. The same magical function may be attributed to the jargon of criminal groups. Although major emphasis has been placed on the conserving and perpetuating element of language, the same characteristics of language make it an excellent instrument to bring about or emphasize social change.

The speech habits of the Religious Society of Friends, based on Biblical simplicity in speech, was part of a whole complex of social gestures expressive of the social reforms of George Fox, the founder of the Society. Many battles were fought before the offensive "Thee" and "Thou" of the Friends were tolerated in their own social environment of non-Friends. The "beatnik" -slang, like their dress and other habits, similarly has a double function. Internally it serves to affirm and preserve group membership; externally it accentuates a breaking away from the social standards, a rebellion against the socially approved habits. The fascination of the new often takes a linguistic form, such as a smattering of foreign languages, newly coined words, or new expressions. The many forms and means of linguistic advertising illustrate the role of language as a means of pushing new ideas and forming new habits and needs

Language pervades social life. It is the principal vehicle for the transmission of cultural knowledge. It is the primary means by

which we gain access to the contents of others' minds. Language is implicated in most of the phenomena that lie at the core of social psychology: attitude change, social perception, personal identity, social interaction, intergroup bias and stereotyping, attribution, and so on. Moreover, for social psychologists, language typically is the medium by which subjects' responses are elicited, and in which they respond: in social psychological research, more often than not, language plays a role in both stimulus and response. Just as language use pervades social life, the elements of social life constitute an intrinsic part of the way language is used. Linguists regard language as an abstract structure that exists independently of specific instances of usage (much as the calculus is a logico-mathematical structure that is independent of its application to concrete problems), but any communicative exchange is situated in a social context that constrains the linguistic forms participants use. How these participants define the social situation, their perceptions of what others know, think and believe, and the claims they make about their own and others' identities will affect the form and content of their acts of speaking.

Although we focus on language use, rather than language structure, the ways languages can be used are constrained by the way they are constructed, particularly the linguistic rules that govern the permissible (i.e., grammatical) usage forms. Language has been defined as an abstract set of principles that specify the relations between a sequence of sounds and a sequence of meanings. As often is the case with pithy definitions of complex terms, this one is more epigrammatic than informative. It omits much of what is required to understand the concept, and even considered on its own limited terms, it is technically deficient. For example, the word sound in the definition is used in a narrow technical sense, restricted to those sounds we identify as speech. The sound of a door slamming may express the slammer's exasperation eloquently, but language conveys meaning in an importantly different fashion. Moreover, the definition of sound

must be expanded to allow consideration of languages that are not spoken, such as sign languages used by the hearing-impaired, and written language. Finally, of course, meaning is hardly a self-defining term.

When we speak with an unknown person we try to identify him in terms of the language he speaks, the region where he comes from, his social status and so forth. Such an encounter and the conversation not only conveys the meaning of the sentences spoken, but also can signal other information about the speakers. The speaker's accent provides information about the geographical origin of the speaker. One can correlate certain aspects of speech with the social class of the speaker. Even the gender of the speaker may affect speech. For example, it is claimed that women are more tentative than men ("He's really clever, isn't he" vs. "He's really clever"). The same speaker may use more or less formal speech depending on the situation and the perceived relationship with his listener. For example, a lawyer talking to a doctor will adopt different modes of speaking depending on which one is consulting the other. Different levels of politeness may be employed depending on the context. Social or cultural conventions may affect speech. For example, the form of words used in a courtroom will probably be different from those used by the same person in a pub.

Speakers may vary their use of language to correspond with one another ("accommodation theory"). The most obvious way in which characteristics converge is the speed of speech. In some cases this can signal closeness to the other person, although it not always: it may be seen as patronizing or condescending. Certain types of speech and accent have associations with social status, and individuals may vary (consciously or not) the way that they speak. Labov was one of the first researchers to demonstrated that this occurs: he showed that New Yorkers regarded the articulation of the non-prevocalic "r" sound (i.e. an "r" that doesn't come before a vowel, e.g. "car", "park", "guard") as a "prestige feature"

(Trudgill p.11), but also that a given individual would use or omit the sound, depending on the situation.

Studies looking at the way that the "h" is dropped at the start of words (e.g. "'ouse" vs. "house") have found similar results. The lower social class the speaker is likely to drop "h". But regardless of social class, the "h" is less likely to be dropped the more formal the context. That is, the same person will not always either drop or not drop the "h" sound. This suggests that this variation in pronunciation may be a way to signal solidarity with other people of the same class. In RP English, the words "could" and "cud" are pronounced as *could* and *cud*, but in parts of Northern England the vowel used is the same (both are pronounced cud). This usage seems to be declining though, while the distinction between the "a" vowel sound e.g. in the word "last" is regarded as a source of pride: RP uses *lahst*, while Northern England has *last*.

1.4. Language as a Cultural Phenomenon

The word culture is etymologically derived from the Latin word 'cultura', which means 'to cultivate' and different philosophers such as Voltaire, Hegel, Humboldt and Kant assign different meaning to it. In antiquity, culture was referred to the opposite of nature, something that is willingly produced by man. (Dahl: 2001) In 18th century, the term was used to describe elite and high-culture concepts in continental Europe. According to Dahl, culture is a collectively held set of attributes, which is dynamic and changing over time. It is the totality of values, beliefs, basic assumptions as well as code of social behavior in a society. Individual are made by culture on one level and culture is made by individuals on the other. (Dahl: 2001).

Language is the basic means for communication in a society. Language is primarily related with culture in the domain of communication. Speakers communicate their ideas, feelings

and facts with language both in inter and intra societal setups. Hence, we can say that language expresses cultural reality (Kramsch, 3: 2005). Language is not only a mean of expressing experience but it also creates experience. Speakers give meaning to such an experience through various mediums, such as, mass media, internet, telephonic conversations, presentations, etc. The medium with which language is used also designate meaning to experience, for example, the phonological and supra-segmented phonological features of language. Hence, we can say that language embodies a cultural reality (Kramsch, 3: 2005).

Culture is a socially acquired knowledge. In every society, the collective set of social values, beliefs, norms and mores are transmitted from one generation to another by the process of socialization. It is discernable from this standpoint that language is also transmitted from one generation to another through the process of socialization. This leads to the inference that language is also a socially acquired knowledge. (Horton and Hunt: 2005). Finally, the speakers of one language identify themselves with a particular group through their peculiar way of using language. This characteristic of individuals in a group signifies that language is viewed as a symbol of social identity. Hence, we can say that language symbolized culture. (Kramsch, 3: 2005)

Language is a complex phenomenon for human communication. In the domain of communication each language of the world is different from the other on both lingual and cultural grounds. This diversity in world languages from linguistic standpoints ranges from the clear distinction of pronunciation and vocabulary to the more complex differences of grammar. The diversity of cultural standpoints related to different languages can be seen in the variety of cultural connotations assigned to these linguistic codes. The representation adopted by different languages to the same sentence such as, 'the professor delivered the lecture', is different to each culture. In English, the verb 'delivered' marks the past tense. In Indonesian and Mandarin, the

verb never changes to mark tense. In Russian, the verb is changed to mark tenses and gender, so if the subject is female instead of male, then a different verb is used from the verb that is used for the male. Similarly, in Russian, the verb is also changed to mark whether the whole lecture was delivered or only part of it was delivered by the professor. In Turkish, the verb even specifies weather the delivery of lecture was witnessed or it was a gossip. It is apparent the speakers of different languages see the different aspects of the world to use their language properly (Gumperz and Levinson: 1996) Do these features of language affect the way their speakers think about the world?

The idea that thought is shaped by language is most commonly associated with the works of American linguistics Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf. According to Whorf, the categories of every human language present a way of perceiving, analyzing and acting in the world. The strong view of the Sapir Whorf Hypothesis that thought and actions are completely determined by language has been rejected in the field of linguistics. However, answering a less deterministic weaker version 'does language affect thought" has proven to be a very difficult task for the researchers. In recent times researchers have found new evidences which highlight the effects of language on thought. This assignment discusses the effect of language on people's thinking of space time, substance, and objects.

The relation between language and culture is a well know phenomenon. Culture is not only reflected in the form of language but is a factor in determining the form of language. On the other hand, language is the primary means of transmitting much of culture from one generation to the other. We can quote many examples of how culture affects language; the gamut runs from vocabulary to idioms to grammatical categories to syntactic constructions. There is little doubt that vocabulary does reflect both the material and conceptual differences between different cultures. For example, the Tamil word "*taali*" (*mangal sutra*

'the item tied around the bride's neck at the time of marriage') has no equivalent word in English, while Tamil has no color word equivalent to the English "orange." An English idiomatic expression like "kick the bucket" could not be translated literally in another language without creating some confusion. Some languages have very subtle grammatical tenses that may not found in other languages, and some syntactic constructions or sentence forms might seem very strange to a speaker of another language. Also a very important issue for our concern is the linguistic process of recursion and how dependent it is on culture. But exactly how do the shared values and ideas he takes as constituting culture determine language structure? Is there a set of well-warranted principles that govern this relationship? Or is it the task of empirical research to uncover that a specific cultural value or idea governs a particular type of linguistic form? Also are all aspects of grammar subject to the influence of culture or only some aspects? And if so, which ones and why? We have to find answers to these questions. But let's take a look at just two examples: one which claims that a cultural value governs language structure and one that makes no claim to culture as a determinant of language structure to see how problematic such explanations are.

Linguists typologically divide languages according to the typical word order of the subject (S), object (O), and verb (V). The possible orders are SOV, SVO, VSO, VOS, OVS, OSV and all possibilities are found among the languages of the world. One may wonder whether these different orders reflect the different cultures of the concerned language. Most of the languages are written from left to write; a few of them are written from right to left and some of them from top to bottom. We may question whether the selection of the direction is for the ease of wring or culturally bound. Also one may ask whether the selection of right branching sentences or left branching sentences are culturally bound.

The learning of cultural practices starts soon after birth. We can have a lengthy list of practices or what we calls cultural values that we claim are learned, such as hygiene, food selection, and manners. One may think that that the acquisition of culture, starts even before language acquisition. But this is doubtful. Learning to communicate through gestures or through speech by means of the mechanisms of social learning (such as imitation, modelling, and selection by reinforcing and shaping contingencies) is absolutely necessary for learning cultural values. Acquiring culture thus requires communication. We see the beginning of this right after a child is born. Mothers and other caregivers start gesturing at and talking to, singing to, making noises at, and touching the infant in order to prompt the infant to respond in some way, and when they do, this leads to the caregiver responding in turn. Caregivers are constantly doing things that affect the behaviour of infants. Caregivers reorient infants' bodies, move their arms and legs, put things in their mouths, wash and bathe them, change them, show them objects, put objects in their hands, and do myriads of other things that have consequences for the infant. This is the start of communication and eventually leads to the child acquiring cultural practices, including those linguistic behaviours.

1.5. Language as a Psychological Phenomenon

The interest on language is by no means confined to the professional linguist or philologist. Language is the vehicle by which thought is formulated and communicated. So the psychologist, logician and philosopher, each from his own viewpoint are concerned with some aspect of the human thought process. They must necessarily devote some attention to language and its role in our thinking. In more recent years even the engineer-mathematician has joined the number of those preoccupied in some way or other with language; and in his "information theory," he has offered us a statistical viewpoint of his own on language and communication.

When we speak one language, we agree that words are representations of ideas, people, places, and events. The given language that children learn is connected to their culture and surroundings. But can words themselves shape the way we think about things? Psychologists have long investigated the question of whether language shapes thoughts and actions, or whether our thoughts and beliefs shape our language. Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf began this investigation in the 1940s. They wanted to understand how the language habits of a community encourage members of that community to interpret language in a particular manner (Sapir, 1941/1964). Sapir and Whorf proposed that language determines thought, suggesting, for example, that a person whose community language did not have past-tense verbs would be challenged to think about the past (Whorf, 1956). Researchers have since identified this view as too absolute, pointing out a lack of empiricism behind what Sapir and Whorf proposed. Today, psychologists continue to study and debate the relationship between language and thought.

Think about what you know of other languages; perhaps you even speak multiple languages. Imagine for a moment that your closest friend fluently speaks more than one language. Do you think that friend thinks differently, depending on which language is being spoken? You may know a few words that are not translatable from their original language into English. For example, the Portuguese word *saudade* originated during the 15th century, when Portuguese sailors left home to explore the seas and travel to Africa or Asia. Those left behind described the emptiness and fondness they felt as *saudade*. The word came to express many meanings, including loss, nostalgia, yearning, warm memories, and hope. There is no single word in English that includes all of those emotions in a single description. Do words such as *saudade* indicate that different languages produce different patterns of thought in people? What do you think?

Language may indeed influence the way that we think, an idea known as linguistic determinism. One recent demonstration of this phenomenon involved differences in the way that English and Mandarin Chinese speakers talk and think about time. English speakers tend to talk about time using terms that describe changes along a horizontal dimension, for example, saying something like "I'm running behind schedule" or "Don't get ahead of yourself." While Mandarin Chinese speakers also describe time in horizontal terms, it is not uncommon to also use terms associated with a vertical arrangement. For example, the past might be described as being "up" and the future as being "down." It turns out that these differences in language translate into differences in performance on cognitive tests designed to measure how quickly an individual can recognize temporal relationships. Specifically, when given a series of tasks with vertical priming, Mandarin Chinese speakers were faster at recognizing temporal relationships between months. Indeed, Boroditsky (2001) sees these results as suggesting that "habits in language encourage habits in thought" (p. 12).

Language does not completely determine our thoughts—our thoughts are far too flexible for that—but habitual uses of language can influence our habit of thought and action. For instance, some linguistic practice seems to be associated even with cultural values and social institution. Pronoun drop is the case in point. Pronouns such as "I" and "you" are used to represent the speaker and listener of a speech in English. In an English sentence, these pronouns cannot be dropped if they are used as the subject of a sentence. So, for instance, "I went to the movie last night" is fine, but "Went to the movie last night" is not in standard English. However, in other languages such as Japanese, pronouns can be, and in fact often are, dropped from sentences. It turned out that people living in those countries where pronoun drop languages are spoken tend to have more collectivistic values (e.g., employees having greater loyalty

toward their employers) than those who use non–pronoun drop languages such as English (Kashima & Kashima, 1998). It was argued that the explicit reference to "you" and "I" may remind speakers the distinction between the self and other, and the differentiation between individuals. Such a linguistic practice may act as a constant reminder of the cultural value, which, in turn, may encourage people to perform the linguistic practice.

One group of researchers who wanted to investigate how language influences thought compared how English speakers and the Dani people of Papua New Guinea think and speak about color. The Dani have two words for color: one word for light and one word for dark. In contrast, the English language has 11 color words. Researchers hypothesized that the number of color terms could limit the ways that the Dani people conceptualized color. However, the Dani were able to distinguish colors with the same ability as English speakers, despite having fewer words at their disposal (Berlin & Kay, 1969). A recent review of research aimed at determining how language might affect something like color perception suggests that language can influence perceptual phenomena, especially in the left hemisphere of the brain. You may recall from earlier chapters that the left hemisphere is associated with language for most people. However, the right (less linguistic hemisphere) of the brain is less affected by linguistic influences on perception (Regier & Kay, 2009)

1.6. Salient Features Language

Language is species-specific to human beings. Other members of the animal kingdom have the ability to communicate, but their communication is limited. They communicate through vocal noises or by other means. It is a well-known fact that certain animal species have ways how to express their ideas to their fellow being. For example they warn the other members of their pack of coming danger, or announce their discovery of

food, or threaten other individuals to protect their territory.

The most important prominent feature of human language against the known modes of animal communication is its productivity and creativity. People are unrestricted in what they can talk about, although it may be necessary to adapt one's language in order to cope with new discoveries or new modes of thought. Noam Chomsky (2006) said: "Language is a process of free creation; its laws and principles are fixed, but the manner in which the principles of generation are used is free and infinitely varied. Even the interpretation and use of words involves a process of free creation."

1.6.1. Misconception about Language

There are many misunderstanding concepts about language. They can be listed as follows:

- Language is writing only: This is not true. There are two representation of the language; they are speech and writing.
- Language is nothing but literature only: This is not true. Literature is a possible application of language.
- Only written language usages are correct and spoken language usages are wrong: This not true. There are differences between the written language and spoken language. It is likely that the written language represent literature whereas the spoken language represents dialect or colloquial speech. Speech forms cannot taken as wrong as they are different from the forms in written language.
- Certain languages logical and certain languages are illogical: This is not true. Language usages are not simply logical representations. Language is controlled

by socio-psychological factors.

- Certain languages are developed and certain languages ae not developed: This is not true. All the languages serve the need of the people. The need may be different form one language to another.
- I know about a language as I speak the language: This is not true. Not all the speakers of a language know the grammar of the language. Knowing a language is different from knowing about the language.
- One cannot learn a language by memorizing the dictionary or the grammar of the language.

1.6.2. Key Properties of Language

Hockett (1958, 1960) lists a number of properties of language as 'design features'. The original list has been extended in successive publication by him. They may be otherwise called key properties. The four important key properties of them which need to be studied elaborately are: features of language: arbitrariness, duality, productivity, and discreteness. There are a few more of them which may be attributed to channel of communication. The following properties too worth considerable: interchangeability, displacement, cultural transmission, semanticity, complete feedback, learnability, reflexivity, and prevarication Lyon (1977) discusses elaborately on thirteen properties which includes those mentioned above. Noam Chomsky says "Human language appears to be a unique phenomenon, without significant analogue in the animal world."

1.6.2.1. Arbitrariness

Language symbols are arbitrary. There is no one to one correspondence between the words and the objects they denote

in the external world. To put it in other words there no one to one correspondence between symbols and their meanings. Thus language symbols are arbitrary and not iconic. Onomatopoeic words can be said to have direct relation with the object they denote. But such words are very few in language.

16.2.2. Duality

Language can be understood as a two tired system. It consists primarily of simple symbols such as phonemes. The simple phonemes are combined to form complex symbols, for example words. Thus language makes use of finite number of phonemes to make infinite number of words. Similarly at the next level language makes of finite number of words to form infinite number of sentences. Thus language becomes a productive system by the feature called duality. Animal communicative system does not show duality. They don't make complex symbols from simple symbols.

1.6.2.3. Productivity

The dual nature of language system makes it a productive system. As said above, at each level language makes of finite set of elements to produce infinite number of complex elements. Language produces infinite number of words by making use of finite number of phonemes. Similarly it produces infinite number of phrases using finite number of word and also produces infinite number of sentences by making use of finite number of phrase. Thus language becomes a system a productive system because of its dual property. The communication systems of animals are not productive. They have only finite number of signals. They don't make complex symbols by making use of the simple symbols.

1.6.2.4. Discreteness

The tern applies to the signal-elements of a semiotic system. If the elements does not admit gradation in terms of more or less they called discrete elements; otherwise they are continuous. The verbal component of a language is discrete in the sense that two word-forms can be absolutely similar or absolutely different. Discreetness is not logically dependent on arbitrariness. Two word-forms may be minimally different and the minimal difference can be attributed to difference in meaning. In contrast with verbal component of language a semiotic system such as bee dancing is continuous rather discrete. At the same time it should be noted that bee-dancing non-arbitrary as the intensity of the dance can be attributed to the distance and the angle of the bee-body during dance can be attributed to direction.

1.6.2.5. Semanticity

Linguistic signals function in correlating signals with the features in the world; in short some linguistic forms have denotation. When the elements of communicative system have associative ties with things, situations, or type of things and situations, in environments of its users we say that the system is semantic or characterized by semanticity. Bee dance is semantic but the courtship signaling of stickleback is not semantic.

1.6.2.6. Displacement

Displacement makes it possible for us to refer to objects and events that are remote in time and place form the act of utterance itself. Linguistic messages may refer to things remote in time or space or both from the site of the communication. Hockett discusses about displacement as one of the design features of language. He opines that "a message is displaced to the extent that the key features in its antecedents and consequences

are removed from the time and place of transmission" (Hockett, 1958: 579). At the same time he maintains that the earliest language-utterances of children are not displace; and he further clarifies that "linguistic signals are often displaced; we refer to things when they are not around (Hocket, 1958: 354-355). In this sense, displacement as the property of language is indisputable. Communication by animals cannot be characterized as displacement. Gibbon calls are never displaced. Recent work with chimpanzees, on the other hand, has shown that they are capable of producing and interpreting signals that make reference to entities absent from the immediate environment.

1.6.2.7. Interchangeability

Language shows interchangeability as one of the properties of the system. Adult members of any speech community are interchangeably transmitter and receiver of linguistic signals. According to Hockett (1958: 589) interchangeability is that "any organism equipped for transmission of message in the system is also equipped to receive messages in the same system." Hockett further states that "any speaker of a language… is theoretically capable of saying anything he is able to understand when some else says it". It is an important fact about language that we can be both senders and receivers using essentially the same system. In many kinds of animal signaling behavior, this is not so. For example, it is not uncommon for members of one sex produce mating signals which only members of the other sex will respond to.

1.6.2.8. Complete Feedback

The transmitter of a linguistic signal himself receives the message. The property of complete feedback is dependent on the previous property i.e. interchangeability. The speaker is able to hear what he says and able to monitor his own

performance. It involves the checking of one's own utterances for comprehensibility and correctness of formation as they are produced and making adjustments when these are judged necessary. It unknown that any other species can said to control its signals by feedback in this sense. But it entirely important to note that human beings can and do control language-utterances in the course of production by feedback.

1.6.2.9. Specialization

A signal is said to be highly specialized if the direct physical consequences of the signal and its effect upon the behavior of the receiving organism are not functionally interrelated. Specialization refers to the indirect influence that one organism exerts upon the behaviour of another and is defined in terms of behaviouristic notion of triggering. For example setting food on the dining table will have the same effect as the utterance "Dinner is almost ready." Hockett (1958: 579) is of the opinion that specialization is language "shows much more extensive specialization than known examples of animal communication." Hockett perceives that specialization is a matter of degree and that the most that one can say about language in this respect is that "it shows much extensive specialization than known examples of animal communication (Hockett 1958: 579). The whole concept of triggering is inapplicable to much of our language-behaviour. The inapplicability is much more pronounced in human language than other cases where triggering does apply.

1.6.2.10. Cultural Transmission

Cultural transmission is opposed to genetic transmission. The ability to speak a particular is passed from one generation to the next by teaching and learning, rather than by instinct. The conventions of a language are passed down by teaching and learning and not through genes. Bee dancing is probably genetic.

But it can be argued that language is genetically transmitted rather than culturally transmitted. Language acquisition theory (Chomsky, 1965) claims that children are born with language acquisition device founded on knowledge of certain universal principles which determine the structure of language. But one cannot deny the fact that a considerable part of structure specific to a language is acquired by learning. It must be remembered here that much of the signaling-behaviour of other species (for example, the songs of birds) that was once thought to be purely instinctive is now know to be acquired by a combination of the instinct and learning. The difference between language and non-human semiotic systems with respect to cultural transmission is not very clear cut.

1.6.2.11. Learnability

Human language system is learnable. Every child has its innate capacity to learn the language to which it is exposed. There is no need to teach the language. The child can also learn other languages, but in a different degree than the first language. Certain birds have the capacity to sign bird-song. Some birds can imitate the songs characteristic of other species. A kind of dialect-system exists in birds-songs too. Parrot can imitate human language to some extent. As in the case of cultural transmission, it is difficult to decide what degree of learnability can be applied to non-human semiotic system. It can be said bird song has he property of learnability to some degree.

1.6.2.12. Reflexivity

In a language one can communicate about communication. No non-human semiotic system other than languages has this property. This is possible as the system is descriptive and not merely expressive or social function.

1.6.2.13. Prevarication

Linguistic messages can be false, as they can be meaningless in logician's sense. The property of a semiotic system by means of which one can deceive or misinform is known by the term prevarication. Many consider prevarication with reflexivity most clearly distinguishes language as a semiotic system from all other signaling systems. But the prevarication occurs in the behavior of certain mammals and birds. Shamming is found in the communicative systems of non-humans too. Freedom from stimulus-control appears to the predominant property of human communicating system rather than non-human communicative system.

1.7. Study of Language

The study of language is known by the term linguistics. People make a distinction between studying a language and study about language. If you learn a language just to communicate in that language, then it is called studying a language. But instead if you study languages for the sake of understanding the mechanism of language, then such study is known as studying about a language which is linguistics. One must a make a distinction between one who know many languages and one who know the mechanism of languages. The first one is known by the term polyglot and the second one is known as linguist.

1.7.1. Definition of Language and Linguistics

Linguistics is defined as scientific study of language. The scientific study of language is not familiar undertaking. Ordinarily when we study a language, we are trying to learn how to speak and understand it. So an important question arises right at the start. Why would anyone want to study language

scientifically? Why not simply use language and get on with the business of living?

Before trying to answer that question, a distinction must be drawn: namely, the distinction between specific and individual languages and language in general. Languages in general are a generic and highly abstract idea; specific languages are instances of language in general, just as specific breeds of dogs are instances of dog in general. A specific language is a particular set of social conventions governing the formation of grammatical utterances and their use in achieving personal goals. People learn particular languages –English, Urdu, Swahili, and Japanese – and use them to interact with others in their society. The scientific study of language is the study of language in general; the study of what is common to all languages.

So why would anyone care about language in general? Nobody speaks language in general. It is useless for communication; we cannot order a pizza in language in general. Yet a moment's reflection establishes the central role that language in general plays in all human affairs. People want to know about language in general, not to use it in social interaction, but in the hope of understanding something that is uniquely human about human beings.

There are good reasons to study language scientifically. Language in general is important not only because it distinguishes human beings from all other animals on the earth, but because, directly or indirectly, it makes possible the elaborate organization of civilized society. Because the human capacity for acquiring language is innate – every human group has one – when we investigate language, we are investigating something universal, with a solid base in the biological nature of Homo sapiens. And language in general is interesting because, although everyone knows and uses a specific language, few people understand what

they know. Becoming self-consciously aware of what is known unself-consciously carries a special brand of excitement.

A skeptic might resist such claim, of course. The skeptic might say, "It is not speech, but human intelligence – the amazing human ability to learn and to adopt – that is so extraordinary and unique." And to support that objection the skeptic could point to people who are born deaf and never acquire spoken language, yet communicate splendidly by means of hand gestures. They achieve the same result, and do so almost as expeditiously as their noisier cousins. But what his argument shows is merely that speech and language are different. Systems of hand gestures that are called sign languages are in every sense as much specific languages as are any systems of spoken word. It is true that congenitally deaf people can do quite well without speech, but they cannot get along without language.

One need not be a communication expert to recognize that different signals can carry the same message, so it is tempting to conclude that it is the message, not the signal, that is important. But that overlooks the fact that without a signal there could be no message. The important point is that different kinds of signals – spoken, gestured, written, whatever – can make possible the externalization of thought and perception. A gorilla might be enormously intelligent, but without some system of signals to communicate that intelligence – without language its remarkable gift would remain unshared. Intelligence alone does not explain the human ability to communicate.

A system of externalizing thought that uses the voice and ear has many advantages over a system that uses the hand and eye. Speech is the biologically given signal system for human communication, and much will be made of spoken words. But when the voice and ear are not available, the human need to communicate finds other signals to replace them. A theory of language in general should have room for this diversity of signals.

The evolution of language enabled many individuals to think together. The externalization achieved by language is not perfect, of course, but it is good enough that many people can share, enjoy, and profit form one person's experience. Thus social unit could form and work together in novel ways, cooperating as if they were a single superordinate individual. The survival value of human language was very great.

If language is important, then it should follow that the building blocks of language such as sounds, words, sentences and meanings are equally important. They give rise to understanding the building blocks of language at different levels of structuring: phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and discourse.

1.7.2. Branches of Linguistics

Before going through the building blocks of language at different levels of language structuring, let us list out the different ways of studying language which will lead us to different branches of linguistics.

Language can be studied practically and theoretically. The practical study of language is just to learn or know a language. For example, learning English or Tamil is practical study of language. Theoretical study of language is knowing about language, which is linguistics. Theoretical study of language can be made intrinsically and extrinsically. Intrinsic study of language is to study language by itself and for itself. Extrinsic study of language is to study language in relation to external factors such as behaviour, formal system and text. Language can be studied intrinsically by two ways: one is analytically and the other is by comparison.

Analytic linguistics – also known as structural or descriptive or synchronic linguistics – is the cornerstone of linguistics. Panini is the earliest known analytic linguist. The

focus is here not on languages or on language in general but on a language. Phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics constitute the core of the linguistic system. There are certain peripheral matters. One is **graphonymy** – the study of writing system that records utterance in visual symbols. Another is **paraphonology** – the study of vocal gestures that accompany the main phonologically conveyed message – features like shouting, whispering, hemming and hawing, silence. Finally, the study of habitual or preferred forms, as apposed to the merely potential, which begins with frequency counts of phonological, grammatical, or graphic units.

Comparison of languages can be made historically or non-historically. The historical comparison of languages leads to the branch of linguistics known as genetic linguistics.

The name **genetic linguistics** may be applied to the study of language change and variation. It covers four closely related but distinct problems with the corresponding techniques. The name **historical linguistics** has been used either for all four of them or specifically for (i) below:

i. **The problem of diachrony:** Language does not stand still. If we compare analytic descriptions of successive phases of a language system, we find some traits continuing unchanged, some traits being lost with or without traces, and some traits being more or less gradually replaced by others. Symbolically:

x' > x''

x' > o''

x'> y''

Sometimes given traits at stage "we can reconstruct traits at stage of which the traits at stage" are divergent developments. This is known as internal reconstruction. This study is usually known by the term **diachronic linguistics or historical linguistics**.

ii. **The problem of diatopy:** Language varies according to geographical location or social differentiation based on class, sex, education, etc. If we compare analytic description of neighbouring speech forms, we find more-than-chance resemblances that can be explained as common inheritances or mutual influences or common borrowings from some third source. These, especially common inheritances, lend themselves to systematic statements of correspondences. Dialects can be studied this way. Symbolically:

x” : x”’

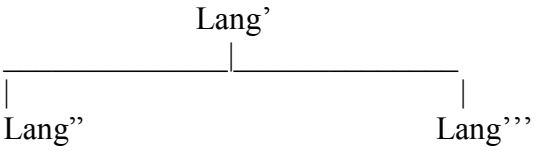
x” : o”’

x’ : y”’

This study is usually known by the term **dialectology**.

iii. **The problem of divergence:** Putting diachronic correspondences and diatopic correspondences due to common inheritance together, we can explicate language variation as a given language changing in different directions in population, first leading to different dialects which in turn may solidify into new daughter languages. Indeed, we can reconstruct the parent language by comparing the daughter languages. Symbolically:

x” < x’ > x”’



Languages tractable to a single parent language are said to belong to the same language family (or sub-family, as the case may be). This study is usually known by the term **comparative linguistics**.

iii. **Problem of convergence:** Diatopic correspondences, however, may be due not to divergence from a common source but to the influence of one language on another, whether the two languages in question are related or not. This is the whole question of language contact (or dialect contact, as the case may be). Thus the varied traits of a dialect of Tamil, that are not traceable to inheritance, may be traceable to a neighbouring dialect of Tamil or a neighbouring related language like Telugu or an ancestral language like Sanskrit or a distantly related language like English or an unrelated language like Hindi. Due to prolonged contact languages belonging to a single network (for example, the South Asian area) may come to share some traits cutting across genetic diversity, as we have already seen. All of these exemplify convergence. This study is known by the term **aerial linguistics**.

Comparison of language non-historically may lead us to **language universals** and **language typology**. The languages of the world through the ages may be compared and their correspondences and difference noted. Leaving aside historically explicable cases – through divergence from a common source or convergence from contact – and leaving aside purely chance cases, there will be a residue of resemblance and differences.

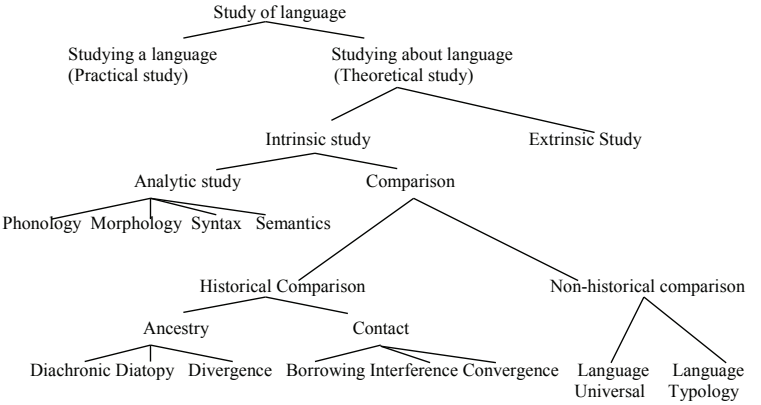
Some traits will be common to all languages – the language universals so-called. Others will have to be thought of as parallel developments – the nursery words for father and mother for instance – or as exhibiting possible type limited by the logic of situation – an adjacent modifier can either precede or follow, the anatomy of speech organs permits just so many configurations, and so on.

A suitable name for the establishment of such non-historical correspondences would have been 'comparative linguistics', on the analogy of comparative literature; but, as it has been allotted to a branch under genetic linguistics, the term **contrastive**

linguistics has been suggested instead. Language universals and language typologies together constitute what may be called **general linguistics**. General phonetics, general semantics are best regarded as a part of this third branch of linguistics, which deals with language generally.

The extrinsic study of language, that is study of language in relation to some related fields of study includes the biology of language (**biolinguistics**), the psychology of language (**psycholinguistics**), the sociology of language (**sociolinguistics**), the ethnology of language (**ethnolinguistics**), the culture-history of language, the aesthetics of language (**stylistics**), the philosophy of ordinary language, language as a formal system (**formal linguistics**), language as a 'population' (**statistical linguistics**), study of language using computer (**computational linguistics**) and so on.

The following tree diagram shows the different branches of study of language, which includes various branches of linguistic study.



1.7.3. Levels in Language Analysis

As sounds, words, sentences and meaning are the building blocks of human languages it is useful to set up different but interrelated levels of analysis such as phonological, morphological, lexical, syntactic and semantic levels to describe the sounds, words, sentences and meanings of languages respectively. There is a need to set up another higher level known by the name discourse to understand the language at a level higher than sentence level. Phonological level which is at the one end of the language structure is linked to phonetics and the semantic level which is at the other end of the language structure is linked to the external world. These levels of structuring of language can be defined briefly as follows:

Phonetics: It is the study of the articulation, transmission and reception of speech sounds.

Phonology: It is the study of the organization of the units of the sounds of speech into syllables and other larger units. The phonology of a language is a description of the systems and patterns of sounds that occur in that language.

Morphology: It is the study of structure of words.

Syntax: It is the study of combination of word into phrases, phrases into clauses and clauses into sentences.

Semantics: It the study of interpretation of meanings when morphemes are combined into words, words into phrases, phrases into classes and clauses into sentences.

The term grammar is sometimes used to refer to morphology and syntax; some linguists use it to refer to the entire language structure.

Graphology is the study of all the conventions used in representing speech in writing.

Lexicology is the study of lexical items and their collocational relations.

From the point of view of structural linguistic theory, the linguistic analysis of utterances at the phonological, morphological and syntactical levels can be depicted as follows:

Chapter 2

Strategies and Theories of Language Learning and Teaching

2.1. Introduction

The language teacher usually depends on the theories put forwarded by linguists, psycho-linguists and socio-linguists. The teacher, not being a theoretician, practices the theories put forward by the theoreticians, including linguists and educationalists, in the class. These which eventually lead to methods help the teacher to create techniques to teach a language in the classroom effectively. Thus language theories guide a teacher to select and follow an approach to the teaching of any new language.

A modern psychological approach to language is based on two basic theories: behaviourist theory of language and cognitive theory of language. Both the theories try to provide an explanation to language learning as a process of habituation. The expected goal in learning is achieved by a series of stimulus and responses. According to behaviourists, learning takes place due to relationship between stimulus and learners' responses to it. As a result of this habituation a learner will be able to give the expected response. This response can lead to the statement that the learner has learned the language. So practicing the lesson should be an important activity for the learner. Behaviourists

believe that these responses of the learners to the stimulus are automatic and not a result of any deliberate thought. Linguists were influenced by behaviourism during 1930 and 40s. This resulted in the publication of teaching materials based on behaviourist theory.

Cognitive theorists say that each learner has a cognitive structure into which any learning is absorbed. All cognitive interpretation of language learning rests upon the neuro-psychological base of thought. Cognitive theory is also called 'mentalistic' because cognitive theoreticians consider language learning as a 'meaningful process'. Cognitive theory validates Experiential Language Learning as the learner understands the new input and connects it with previous inputs or experiences.

2.2. Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies is a term referring to the processes and actions that are consciously deployed by language learners to help them to learn or use a language more effectively. They have also been defined as 'thoughts and actions, consciously chosen and operationalized by language learners, to assist them in carrying out a multiplicity of tasks from the very outset of learning to the most advanced levels of target language performance' (Cohen, 2011). The term language learner strategies incorporates strategies used for language learning and language use..

The learners expect the learning process to be quick, simple and more effective which can be passed on to new situations. So Learners make use of learning strategies to help them acquire a language. A learner of English wants to learn English language to communicate in English fluently and correctly. He may need English in business, in restaurant, to ask directions, etc. The learning strategy one adopts will not enable him to use the language in all situations. Using different learning

strategies in a reasonable course of time will enable the learner to use the language successfully. Linguists call it a 'strategy chain', a set of interconnected and supportive strategies. Language autonomy can be acquired with the help of learning strategies. Managing one's own learning process is a must for autonomy. Self-efficacy also can be improved by learning strategies.

Language Learning Strategies have been classified by many scholars. However, most of their attempts to classify language learning reflect more or less the same categorizations of language learning strategies without any radical changes. Let us look at O'Malley (1985) Rubin's (1987), Oxford's (1990), and Stern's (1992) taxonomies of language learning strategies elaborately.

2.2.1. Language Learning Strategies of O'Malley et al

O'Malley et al. (1985:582-584) divide language learning strategies into three main subcategories:

- Metacognitive Strategies
- Cognitive Strategies
- Socioaffective Strategies

Metacognitive strategies is a term to express executive function, strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about the language process as it is taking place, monitoring one's production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed. Cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning tasks and they involve more direct manipulation of learning material itself. Repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, inferencing are among the most important cognitive strategies. Socioaffective strategies can be stated that they are related with social-mediating activity and transacting

with others. Cooperation and question for clarification are the main socioaffective strategies (Brown 1987).

2.2.2. Rubin's Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Rubin's (1987) Classification of Language Learning Strategies is given below:

1. Learning Strategies
    1. Cognitive Learning Strategies
        - Clarification / Verification
        - Guessing / Inductive Inferencing
        - Deductive Reasoning
        - Practice
        - Memorization
        - Monitoring
2. Metacognitive Learning Strategies
        - planning
        - prioritising
        - setting goals
        - self-management
3. Communication Strategies
4. Social Strategies

Rubin (1987), who is pioneered in the field of strategies, makes the distinction between strategies contributing directly and those contributing indirectly to learning. According to Rubin, there are three types of strategies used by leaners that contribute directly or indirectly to language learning. These strategies are language strategies, communicative strategies and social strategies. The language strategies are of two main types, being the strategies contributing directly to the development of the

language system constructed by the learner: cognitive learning strategies and metacognitive learning strategies.

Cognitive learning strategies refer to the steps or operations used in learning or problem-solving that requires direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Rubin identified six main cognitive learning strategies contributing directly to language learning: clarification/verification, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization and monitoring.

Metacognitive learning strategies are used to oversee, regulate or self-direct language learning. They involve various processes such as planning, prioritizing, setting goals, and self-management. Communication strategies are less directly related to language learning since their focus is on the process of participating in a conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying what the speaker intended. Communication strategies are used by speakers when faced with some difficulty due to the fact that their communication ends outrun their communication means or when confronted with misunderstanding by a co-speaker. Social strategies are those activities learners engage in which afford them opportunities to be exposed to and practice their knowledge. Although these strategies provide exposure to the target language, they contribute indirectly to learning since they do not lead directly to the obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using of language (Rubin and Wenden 1987: 23-27).

2.2.3. Oxford's Taxonomy of Language Learning Strategies

Oxford's (1990:17) taxonomy of language learning strategies is shown below.

- DIRECT STRATEGIES

  I. Memory
     a. Creating mental linkages
     b. Applying images and sounds
     c. Reviewing well
     d. Employing action

  II. Cognitive
     a. Practicing
     b. Receiving and sending messages strategies
     c. Analyzing and reasoning
     d. Creating structure for input and output

  III. Compensation strategies
     a. Guessing intelligently
     b. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

- INDIRECT STRATEGIES

  I. Metacognitive strategies
     a. Centering your learning
     b. Arranging and planning your learning
     c. Evaluating your learning

  II. Affective Strategies
     a. Lowering your anxiety
     b. Encouraging yourself
     c. Taking your emotional temperature

  III. Social strategies

a. Asking questions

b. Cooperating with others

c. Empathizing with others

Oxford (1990) sees the aim of language learning strategies as being oriented towards the development of communicative competence. Oxford divides language learning strategies into two main classes, direct and indirect, which are further subdivided into six groups. In Oxford's system, metacognitive strategies help learners to regulate their learning. Affective strategies are concerned with the learner's emotional requirements such as confidence, while social strategies lead to increased interaction with the target language. Cognitive strategies are the mental strategies learners use to make sense of their learning, memory strategies are those used for storage of information, and compensation strategies help learners to overcome knowledge gaps to continue the communication.

2.2.4. Stern's Classification of Language Learning Strategies

According to Stern (1992:262-266), there are five main language learning strategies. These are as follows:

1. Management and Planning Strategies

- decide what commitment to make to language learning
- set himself reasonable goals
- decide on an appropriate methodology, select appropriate resources, and monitor progress,
- evaluate his achievement in the light of previously determined goals and expectation

2. Cognitive Strategies

- Clarification / Verification
- Guessing / Inductive Inferencing
- Deductive Reasoning
- Practice
- Memorization
- Monitoring

3. Communicative - Experiential Strategies

4. Interpersonal Strategies

5. Affective Strategies

Management and planning strategies are related with the learner's intention to direct his own learning. A learner can take charge of the development of his own program when he is helped by a teacher whose role is that an adviser and resource person. That is to say that the learner must decide what commitment to make to language learning, set himself reasonable goals to decide on an appropriate methodology, select appropriate resources, and monitor progress.

Cognitive strategies are steps to operations used in learning or problem solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Some of the cognitive strategies are clarification/verification, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization and monitoring.

Communicative-experiential strategies, communication strategies, such as circumlocution, gesturing, paraphrase, or asking for repetition and explanation are techniques used by learners so as to keep a conversation going. The purpose of using these techniques is to avoid interrupting the flow of communication.

According to interpersonal strategies learners should monitor their own development and evaluate their own

performance. Leaners should contact with native speakers and cooperate with them. Leaners must become acquainted with the target culture. For affective strategies it is evident that good language learners employ distinct affective strategies. Language learning can be frustrating in some cases. In some cases, the feeling of strangeness can be evoked by the foreign language. In some other cases, second language learners may have negative feelings about native speakers of second language. Good language learners try to create associations of positive effect towards the foreign language and its speakers as well as towards the learning activities involved. Learning training can help students to face up to the emotional difficulties and to overcome them by drawing attention to the potential frustrations or pointing them out as they arise.

Affective Strategies: It is evident that good language learners employ distinct affective strategies. Language learning can be frustrating in some cases. In some cases, the feeling of strangeness can be evoked by the foreign language. In some other cases, L2 learners may have negative feelings about native speakers of L2. Good language learners are more or less conscious of these emotional problems. Good language learners try to create associations of positive affect towards the foreign language and its speakers as well as towards the learning activities involved. Learning training can help students to face up to the emotional difficulties and to overcome them by drawing attention to the potential frustrations or pointing them out as they arise (Stern 1992:266).

Affective strategies are learning strategies concerned with managing emotions, both negative and positive. The relationship between affective strategies and learning is not clear, but a positive affective environment helps learning in general. Affective strategies are techniques to help the students control their emotions, attitudes, motivations and values. These strategies have a powerful influence on language learning because

they allow the students to manage their feelings. A learner can identify his feelings like anger, unhappiness and anxiety and s/he can be aware of such situations which produce such feelings. Such in language learning process positive attitudes and beliefs can increase the learner's motivation and will improve his language learning. Affective strategies are techniques to help the students control their emotions, attitudes, motivations and values. These strategies have a powerful influence on language learning because they allow the students to manage their feelings. For example, students may use laughter to relax and praise to reward themselves for their achievement.

The teacher can play an active role in developing and exploiting affective strategies by building a generally positive atmosphere in the class. This can happen by encouraging and counselling learners, by helping them identify achievable aims and work towards autonomous learning, through personalising activities, and through pair and group work.

It can be seen that much of the recent work in this area has been underpinned by a broad concept of language learning strategies (LLS) that goes beyond cognitive process to include social and communicative strategies. In 1990, Rebecca L. Oxford introduced strategies that learner employs to help him/her to learn a new language. These LLS can be classified under six types, memorization, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies.

Memorization strategies: Memorization strategies are techniques used to remember more effectively, to retrieve and transfer information needed for future language use. Memorization helps students to store in memory important information gathered from their learning. When the information is needed for use in future, these strategies helps students to get the information back. For example, semantic map of a group of nouns or verbs that show relationship between words.

Cognitive strategies: Cognitive strategies used to help the students to manipulate the target language or task correctly by using their processes. They include reasoning, analysis and drawing conclusions. For example, the u se of drills to practice language and the use of dictionary to find difficult words. Cognitive strategies are one type of learning strategy that learners use in order to learn more successfully. These include repetition, organising new language, summarising meaning, guessing meaning from context, using imagery for memorization. A cognitive theory of learning sees second language acquisition as a conscious and reasoned thinking process, involving the deliberate use of learning strategies. Learning strategies are special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning or retention of information. Cognitive strategy helps learners to make an association with the previous and new knowledge or information. Learners already have many of information. He is always updating this information with new information which he collects from various sources. Analysing, guessing, inductive and deductive reasoning, rearranging the information and taking regular notes of the information are examples of cognitive strategies.

Compensation strategies: Compensation strategies are communication strategies used by learners to compensate for limitations in their language. Different kinds of learners have preferences for different kinds of learning strategies, for example female learners tend to prefer social and affective strategies and monolingual learners may favour compensation strategies.

Compensation strategies are employed by the students to compensate the missing knowledge in the target language due to lack of vocabulary The strategies help to allow the students use the language to speak and write in the target language even when their vocabulary is limited. For example, the use of linguistic clues to guess the meanings or by inventing words to the use of linguistic clues to guess compensates their lack of vocabulary.

Guessing the meaning or idea while listening and reading fills a learning gap. Likewise contemporary or communicative strategies assist learners while speaking and writing. Using synonyms and gesturing is a strategy for speaking and use of synonym will fill the knowledge gaps while writing. Cohen (1977) thinks that this strategy is suitable for language use only. Little (1999) and Oxford (1990) are of the opinion that this strategy suits both language use and language learning.

Compensation Strategies helps all levels of students who don't know an expression, who fail to hear something clearly and who are faced with the situation that not clear about them leaning of the vocabulary to overcome these knowledge limitations in all four skills. Generally, guessing is useful for listening and reading. It helps the students to think about their old knowledge and try out to answer before they get all comprehension of the words. It'll help them get more understanding in meaning of words. Using other clues helps the students to get a whole comprehension of the word, sentence or content of the situation by using other materials such as pictures, VDO, audio sound or other media instead of using only linguistic.

Metacognitive strategies: Metacognition is often referred to as "thinking about thinking." But that's just a quick definition. Metacognition is a regulatory system that helps a person understand and control his or her own cognitive performance. Metacognition allows people to take charge of their own learning. It involves awareness of how they learn, an evaluation of their learning needs, generating strategies to meet these needs and then implementing the strategies. (Hacker, 2009). Learners often show an increase in self-confidence when they build metacognitive skills. Self-efficacy improves motivation as well as learning success. Metacognitive skills are generally learned during a later stage of development. Metacognitive strategies can often (but not always) be stated by the individual who is using them. For all age groups, metacognitive knowledge is crucial for

efficient independent learning because it fosters forethought and self-reflection.

Metacognitive strategies are employed by the students to help them coordinate the learning process by centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating their learning. They help learner to control their own learning. Students will also be able to plan what their learning strategies should be and change them if they are not suitable. For example, overviewing with already known material and deciding in advance on what to pay attention to.

Metacognitive strategies facilitate learning how to learn. You can incorporate these, as appropriate, into eLearning courses, social learning experiences, pre- and post-training activities and other formal or informal learning experiences. Many types of metacognitive strategies exist. They assist learners to manage themselves as learners in knowledge seeking process and choose particular tasks for learning. This strategy will help the learner to focus on his area of interest his needs and the best style of learning. Each learning approach helps to learn a language. Learner can select the learning style which suits him best. Metacognitive strategy helps a learner to select the right resource and fix a goal for language learning. If the strategy also helps the learner to handle particular language tasks also come under this Metacognitive strategy. Selecting resources to solve these particular tasks also come under this Metacognitive strategy.

In summary, metacognition is a set of skills that enable learners to become aware of how they learn and to evaluate and adapt these skills to become increasingly effective at learning. In a world that demands lifelong learning, providing people with new and improved metacognitive strategies is a gift that can last forever.

Social strategies: Social strategies are an integral part of communicative language learning. Social strategies help students

to know about the culture of the target language speaking people. Using his strategy learners can learn with others discuss problem questions, etc.

Social strategies are activities that students engage in to seek opportunities to be exposed to an environment where practice is possible. These strategies are important because language learning always involves other people; it is a form of social behavior. For example, questioning for understanding or facts and work together with peers or speakers of the target language including native and native like speakers in order to upgrade their language skills.

Rubin (1975) believes that the following properties will make a good learner if s/he is a willing and accurate guesser, has a strong drive to communicate, willing to make mistakes, practice, monitors his or her own and other's speech and pays attention to meaning.

A learner can be taught with different learning strategies. The result depends on cultural back ground and contents of the teacher's material.

Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of language learning strategies divides these strategies into two main classes, direct and indirect strategies according to their contribution in the process of language learning. The first class is direct strategies employed by language learners. Direct strategies include memorization, cognitive and compensation strategies.

Mnemonic strategy: Mnemonic strategies are systematic procedures for enhancing memory. Their particular use is in developing better ways to take in (encode) information so that it will be much easier to remember (retrieve). Although there are retrieval strategies that can be employed to attempt to retrieve information that has been forgotten, research has demonstrated that the way we encode information when we first study facilitates memory better. The particular task in developing

mnemonic strategies is to find a way to relate new information to information students already have locked in long-term memory. If we can make a firm enough connection, the memory will last a very long time. For example, Crystal had learned the capital of Florida so well because the mnemonic strategy had carefully linked it to things she was very familiar with. Because Florida sounds like flower (the keyword), it was easy to teach her to make an automatic connection between Florida and flower: *What's the keyword for Florida? Flower, good! And, what state is flower the keyword for? Good, Florida!* It was also easy to teach her to establish a firm association between Tallahassee and television because television was very familiar to Crystal and the two words, again, sound very similar:

Mnemonic strategy assists learners to connect a newly learned knowledge with what that they have already learned and know. These are useful for remembering knowledge in a systematic way in different ways. Examples are by sounds as in rhyming, by body movement as learners follow teachers' command, particular point in a black board or page. Mnemonic strategy connects old and newly learned knowledge stimulus-response manner. This drawback does not prevent learners to use Mnemonic strategy to learn vocabulary items and grammar principles.

2.3. Theories of Language Teaching and Learning

Edward Anthony, an American applied linguist, defines language learning theories, approaches, methods and techniques as follows:

An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language (i.e. linguistic) and the nature of language teaching and learning; it describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught; it is more theoretical and forms the basis of any method to be formulated; an approach is axiomatic.

A method is an overall plan for orderly presentation of language material; no part of the method evolved contradicts the principles of the approach on which it is based; a method is more procedural; within any approach, there can be several methods.

A technique represents implementation; it is the actual implementation of a method in the classroom. It is the particular way of doing things to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, which in turn must be in harmony with an approach (1963: 66).

Language learning approaches and methods have their sources and routes on language learning theories like behaviourism, cognitivism, structuralism, transformation and semanticism.

2.3.1. Grammar-Translation Method

Medieval scholastic theories produced the grammar-translation method, which was the only teaching method for several centuries. Howatt's 'A History of English Language Teaching' gives a detailed account of the factors that contributed to the grammar-translation method.

> The origins of the grammar-translation method do not lie in an attempt to teach languages by grammar and translation; these were taken for granted anyway. The original motivation was reformist. ... The grammar-translation method was an attempt to adopt these traditions to circumstances and requirements of schools (1984:279)

Howatt says that the method used by individual learners to read and understand a book in a foreign language using dictionary, grammar texts, etc was taken to schools to teach a foreign language or languages. Literary classics were the source textbooks for teaching foreign languages in the grammar-translation methods, because they were the models of good writing correct grammar.

Grammar-translation method was practiced in both east and west for many centuries. In India it was for Persian and Sanskrit and in the west it was for Latin and Greek. Franz Ahn and H.G. Ollendorff are the major successful practitioners of this method. Franz Ahn designed courses for German and then in English, Spanish, Italian and Russian languages. Ollendorff designed the textbooks in a graded linguistic syllabus for the first time.

The learner studies the grammar of the L2 in detail. In the second stage, this knowledge of the grammar will be utilised to translate from the mother tongue into the L2. Later he can use the same method to translate from L2 to L1. The first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language (Stern 1983).

GT method gives more importance to translating sentences and parts of lessons. Teachers give sentences and parts of lessons to students to translate from L1 to L2 and L2 to L1. It is assumed that the learner will be able to translate precisely and learn L2. Bilingual word lists, dictionaries are of much help to teach vocabulary. Learners also memorize words of L2 and its meaning in L1. The flaw of GT method is, it gives least importance to speaking and listening skills. Teachers base their teaching entirely on 'text' and they follow each unit. Communication skills or pronunciation skills are not taken into consideration and literary language is focused upon. Learners' involvement, application of innovative technique of teachers to meet the needs of the learners are not considered. The entire focus is on writing and reading. Teachers use L1 or mother tongue profusely to explain lessons in L2. Another drawback is even though the texts are written by well-known authors they are not from the academic teaching field. For example, to teach English, works of text excerpts of well-known authors like, Dickens, Hardy, Shakespeare, Tennyson, Burke are commonly used. Texts in the foreign language are translated into native language orally and in writing and ideally their literary and cultural significance is discussed, although in many classes

because of the limitation in the time available, this is done very perfunctorily, if at all (Rivers 1968, 1981)

2.3.2. Structural-oral-situational approach

Structural-oral-situational approach or S-O-S approach is the proposition and practice of diligently taken grammatical structures of English successful, relevant situations. Formally it is practiced through speech. In the next stage focus was on reading and writing. Language is considered as structural elements for sending meaningful messages. Teaching lessons are chosen classified by qualified teachers or linguists. Classification will decide which should come in the beginning and which should follow the first and which should follow third, etc. It is difficult to do anything at any stage, if it is adaptable and suitable many places (Mackey, 1965). In order to classify structural elements, teaching experts take special note of the following points.

- Frequency of structural elements in the language of the user
- Are the classified structures beneficial to acquiring language
- The feasibility of the teaching and learning in the classrooms
- Which structural elements can be taken together for the purpose of meeting the students' needs

Additionally vocabulary of the L2 also is chosen and classified. 2000-3000 words which are frequently used by the native speakers and written texts and which are necessary for teaching English are diligently chosen to prepare the vocabulary list.

S-O-S approach is based on the conviction that 'language is primarily speech'. L 2 is taught in the same way as learners

picked up their L1. As they learned their mother tongue, learners first learn by listening, then speaking, reading and finally writing. Methodologists who advocate SOS believe that reading and finally writing. Methodologists who advocate SOS believe that Language is a set of habits. They are also influenced by the operant conditioning theories of BF Skinner. Skinner believed that learning language is a habit formation and more use of a language will reinforce it. 'The learners learn to manipulate structures to a point of automatic response to language stimulus (Rivers, 1964:31)'. Frisby (1957) summarises Palmer's views of language learning process to; first the learner will receive knowledge or resources with knowledge, secondly he will store them into his memory by repeating and knowledge, secondly he will store them into his memory by repeating and finally he will use them according to the suitability of situation. SOS approach includes pattern-drilling and memorisation. This may be due to the influence of the behavioural psycho or stimulus -response theory formulated by Skinner.

2.3.3. Direct Method

Direct Method during its initial stages was called natural method. Linguists wanted learners to learn English Language as they learnt their first language or in other words, as a child learns a language. Direct method can be aptly defined as follows. The direct method originated in a desire to do something that the schools of time were not doing, and could not do, namely to teach first languages as practical skills for everyday purposes of social survival questions of educational value and worthwhileness were irrelevant. What mattered was the ability to communicate effectively in ordinary life" (Howatt, 1984). 'Direct' suggests that this method intends to teach without translation, grammar or dictionary. Every human being has the ability to communicate in necessary situations. Most proper and successful way to acquire language is by conversation drills. Maria Dakowska (2005) deems

the basic principles of direct on drills. Maria Dakowska (2005) deems the basic principles of direct on drills. Maria Dakowska (2005) deems the basic principles of direct on drills. Maria Dakowska (2005) deems the basic principles of direct method as learning language in a situational context by connecting new words to related contexts for getting suitable meanings.

Direct method gives importance to correct pronunciation. In a Direct Method class, new teaching units were introduced orally. Words were selected based on its usefulness in the given situations. Meaning was taught using objects, based on its usefulness in the given situations. Meaning was taught using objects, pictures, gestures etc. Grammar is learned inductively.

2.3.4 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) focuses on the learner's role, and the importance of meaning. Communicative competence is given prominent position in the process of language learning. CLT deals with most of the aspects of language learning compared to the conventional and modern language teaching methods. Howat talks about the two different types of CLT: methods. Howat talks about the two different types of CLT:

There is, in a sense, 'strong' version of communicative approach and a 'weak' version. The weak version which has become more or less standard practice in the last ten years stresses the importance of less standard practice providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities to wider programmes of language teaching... The 'strong' version of Communicative Language Teaching on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of language system itself. If the former could be described as

'learning to use' English the latter entails using English to learn it. The two basics of communication is giving a message and completing the information space. Successful communication depends on listener's willingness and ability to understand" (1984: 279).

Savingnon (1983: 8) says, 'We make the best use we can of symbolic system we know, The meaning convey depends on others who share an understanding of these symbols and who may or may not interpret them as we intend". Maria Dakowska (2005: 93) gives the following key factors or intend". Maria Dakowska (2005: 93) gives the following key factors or intend". Maria Dakowska (2005: 93) gives the following key factors or intend". Maria Dakowska (2005: 93) gives the following key factors or parameters of the communicative situations.

Table 2.1. parameters for communicative situations

The setting	**The time and place of communication**
The participants	The social roles of the speakers and the addressees or audience
The purpose	The communicative goal which can be further subdivided into smaller functions
The key	Tone, manner or spirit in which the speech act is performed
The content	The topic of communication may determine the use of specialized language
The channel	The two main channels are activation and visual

Canal and Swaine (1980) say that communication competence is made of grammatical, socio grammatical, socio grammatical, socio grammatical, socio-linguistic and strategic competence. The Aim of teaching should be for the betterment of communicative competence. The facilitator (teacher) using CLT

methodology should take into consideration the communication requirements of students. The students should be allowed to interact with target language speakers. On the other hand, students' mother tongue and the skills used in it should be amply used. Primary purpose of Communicative Language Teaching is to allow the students to experience target language and use it in different contexts. Widdowson (1978: 31) says "meanings do not exist, readymade in the language itself: they are worked out. We are given linguistic clues to what propositions are expressed and acts are performed and on the basis of these clues we make sense of sentences".

2.3.4.1. Principles of Communicative Method

The initiation and implementation of the Communicative Language Teaching is a step forward in the language teaching pedagogy. The following are some important principles underlying Communicative Language Teaching:

1. Communicative Language Teaching is Students' focused: Students' participation and involvement during the English Language teaching class is the most important factor. In CLT learner is the centre of action or activities. Teacher's role is secondary. (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). The teacher is a facilitator or guide and he involves in the Communicative Language Teaching with the learner in equal terms. The learner can do, involve, negotiate or change the lessons other components of their task in the target language.
2. The aim of Communicative Language Teaching is the effective target language learning. Considering this the teaching materials of classroom activities should be made relevant, authentic and meaningful. This will make the learner to understand better and

to remember the already learned or done activities. The lessons or activities planned or designed should be open ended and give opportunities for students to think, have original original independent ideas or answers. It should be reality based, relevant, interesting and related to modern civilization lessons be ideal for CLT. ing and related to modern civilization lessons be ideal for CLT. ing and related to modern civilization lessons be ideal for CLT. ing and related to modern civilization lessons be ideal for CLT. These will make successful learning possible in CLT class. Johnson's suggests,

> The attempts to make information gaps in the classroom, thereby producing communication, viewed as the bridging of the information gap, has characterised much recent communicative methodology. (1979: 201

This information gap in the CLT should be provided to students as pictures, puzzles, games, audio or video clips, etc.

3. Culture content of the syllabus should be identical to the culture of learners and target language users. Communication and culture are inter-related. So if the classroom activities and lessons like passages, pictures, related. So if the classroom activities and lessons like passages, pictures, posters, film clippings, games, puzzles and objects reflect the culture posters, film clippings, games, puzzles and objects reflect the culture relevant to the learner of target language, they can promote learning via communication.

4. Observing the speaker is important for listener to comprehend his message in full. The speaker's body language expressions are very important, in addition

to his verbal messages. This property of learner-listener observation makes video an integral part of Communicative Language teaching methodology. Subtitles, printed scripts, graphics, print or hand written notes can be used to arrive at successful communication.

5. A Communicative Language Teaching text book should focus on context. It should be skill-oriented, it should be rich, colourful and illustrated with pictures, photographs, cartoons, drawing, maps, charts, etc. Passages should be interesting, real, original and useful. Tasks for teaching all aspects of learning should be there. Tasks should promote problem solving, interaction, planning in advance, making presentation, short solving, interaction, planning in advance, making presentation, short speeches, etc. speeches, etc.

2.3.5 Task based Language Learning

Long (1985:89) defines task as any job undertaken by somebody for himself or for other people. It can be buying a ticket, reserving seat in the theatre and similar other jobs anybody does in his or her everyday life, personally or professionally. Richards (1986: 289) defines a pedagogical task as a result of 'processing or understanding language'. Watching a play and later enacting it is an example of pedagogical task. Practicing or doing variety of tasks will enhance language learning and can be considered as successful task completion. It also will increase the communication skill of the student. Language is practised for learning communication and not for the sake of language. Breen (1987:23) defines pedagogical task as any language learning atte pedagogical task as any language learning atte pedagogical task as any language learning attempt which has a definite aim,

suitable content and a planned procedure. Doing the task should enhance language learning. Tasks can be done individually, in pair or as a group activity

Skehan (1998) considers meaning as the basis of a task. Learners have to invent, find out or guess the meaning and he cannot depend on meanings provided by others. The tasks which are given to the learning should be similar to real life incidents. Prominence should be given to the successful completion of the task. Task evaluation is done on the basis of outcome.

Ellis (2003:16) expects a task to be like real work activity, which involve in productive oral and written skills like any other language learning process.

David Nunan (2007: 4) defines a task as classroom work, which helps students to understand, manipulate and communicate in the target language. Students should acquire grammatical knowledge, while being involved in a task. For meaning expression, conveying meaning is preferred to manipulation. A task should be complete, independent and should have 'a beginning, middle and an end'.

A task used in the based language teaching is similar to or identical any activity which a person does in his or her routine life. Halliday (1985) divides real world tasks, into three general activities. He calls them three 'macro functions of language. People use language to buy or sell exchange goods and perform and get service. This is transactional or service macro function. We use language to write read, i.e., for enjoyment and this according to Halliday is the aesthetic macro function of language.

Day to day activities or real-world tasks are brought into the classroom for world tasks are brought into the classroom for learning and they are presented as pedagogical task. Tasks are planned implemented in the classroom, not for repeating what they do outside but to use implemented in the classroom, not for

repeating what they do outside but to use as a learning method. In the beginning learners will reproduce learning with or without changes, but later this will make them capable of creating language expressions selecting from the texts and other materials developed for doing expressions selecting from the texts and other materials developed for doing the tasks. David Nunan says "...Language classrooms are unnatural by design, and that they exist precisely to provide for learners the kinds of practice opportunities that they exist precisely to provide for learners the kinds of practice opportunities that they exist precisely to provide for learners the kinds of practice opportunities that they exist precisely to provide for learners the kinds of practice opportunities that do not exist outside the class room." (2007: 22). According to David Nunan principles of task based language leaching can be defined as following (2007).

2.3.5.2. Principles of Task based Language Teaching

2.3.5.2.1. Scaffolding

Teacher has an important role in the learner-centred task-based language teaching. Learning materials and study units support back the learning process. Teacher will facilitate a favourable atmosphere where learning takes place. The task to be introduced is higher than the learner's existing knowledge. All the teaching or implementation of steps task should be done carefully and in time.

2.3.5.2.2. Dependency

Each lesson is a chain of different tasks. task precedes another and succeeded by another. Each task is a natural continuation of the preceding task. In each task there are sub activities like listening or observing the tasks repeatedly and manipulating then creating new language expressions.

2.3.5.2.3. Recycling

Learners should be given more opportunities for learning a particular lesson by taking more time. This time period will give him opportunities for lesson by taking more time. This time period will give him opportunities for going through or going through or face varied linguistic and experiential environments. The learner will see how a piece of learning material which he did not understand initially works in conjunction with other closely related linguistic items. From the different opportunities society g the different opportunities society give for example, in a restaurant, theatre or super market, the learner can learn how to express like and dislike, such as yes or super market, the learner can learn how to express like and dislike, such as yes or no questions, making preferences, etc.

2.3.5.2.4. Active Learning

The Major idea of experiential learning is 'by doing'. Learners can build up their learning and knowledge instead of waiting for the teacher to transfer it to them. Experiential learning provides immense opportunities for the learners in the class, they can 'use' language by way of role play, learners in the class, they can 'use' language by way of role play, memorisation of dialogues, developing storylines, completing chart, etc. Using audio and video input, listening to teachers fellow students will help to complete their learning tasks. Experiential learning doesn't reject the teacher. Teacher has a major role – giving input, explaining etc. But real class time should be student focussed and not teacher dominated.

2.3.5.2.5. Integration

Language teaching, especially second language teaching was based on synthetic approach, where lexical, grammatical

and phonological items were taught separately. Communicative activities did not consider their effect and by taught separately. Communicative activities did not consider their effect and by 1980 they argued for a meaning based approach instead of the form based or synthetic approach. Due to this conflict an attempt has been made to integrate both the formal and functional aspects of teaching was stressed because 'communication is learning'.

2.3.5.2.6. Reproduction is Learning

In regular tasks, students repeat or reproduce what is provided by the teachers and teaching materials. These tasks are provided for the purpose of teaching forms, functions and meanings. These tasks can be considered as the pre-tasks which were followed by creative tasks where students connecting these expressions and familiar components create original new ideas, usages and , usages and sentences. They will reach a level where they can generate creative language.

2.3.5.2.7. Reflection

In task-based language teaching, each teaching task is on a distinct teaching strategy. Students who understand this strategy were better learners. Because of the change in focus from language content to learning process, a reflective learner can learn better.

2.3.6 Experience Based Language Teaching

It is difficult for a language teacher trainer to teach or train the trainees because they are new and inexperienced in the profession of teaching. It is difficult for the new teacher to anticipate problems which his students may have. The new teacher will find it difficult to know in advance which aspect of language learning is difficult for his students.

But an experienced teacher knows the aspects of language lesson which troubles the students and he knows how much time is required for a student to understand a lesson unit. Language teachers, who are experienced, teach target languages in a flexible manner. Each class they take makes them better teacher and they will improve their materials, techniques etc so that the later classes were more didactic, memorable and enjoyable. Every experience each language teacher acquires helps him to use innovative techniques to teach difficult grammar points, solve the problem in pronouncing difficult words, the phrases the students misused, etc. easily. Experience helps language teachers to use or modify or sometimes abandon certain teaching techniques. These strategies can be recollected and used in a future class the similar way or with changes as situation requires. As per the teaching situation the teacher selects most suitable teaching strategy to use in that particular class. Experienced language teachers teach in a flexible manner the class rooms and it can be elaborated teachers teach in a flexible manner the class rooms and it can be elaborated in cognitive psychology term 'schema' theory. Medin and Ross say as follows:

1) A schema refers to one's knowledge about the word (as opposed A schema refers to one's knowledge about the word (as opposed to information that is in the world).

2) It is general, encoding information about a particular type of situation rather than about one particular situation.

3) It is structured, meaning that it includes not only a set of facts, but all also how the facts are related. This allows inferences to be made.

4) Its structure allows it to be used in the comprehension of types of situations (1992: 346) situations (1992: 346)

Another aspect of schema theory is that they produce expectations what going to happen, it helps us understand any unusual happen going to happen, it will help us to foresee what is going to happen. Language teachers draw from their memory bank and refine them to introduce in the most suitable way in the class, everyday.

Language teachers improve their teaching skills on the job. A teacher may ask for opinion and get some materials from other teacher. He may collect the necessary materials from the library. Text books from other countries may not be acceptable wholly because of cultural difference. In such case the teacher will revise, modify and change the materials to suit students' cultural background. Breen and Litlejohn (2000: 9) say "the actual syllabus is a compromise between the original syllabus and teacher's response to student's needs th the original syllabus and teacher's response to student's needs that is revealed in at is revealed in at is revealed in the classroom". the classroom".

A well experienced Language teacher has the ability to utilize all teaching skills, and achieve the set goal. The success of this effort will make students to trust such teachers because they know that any activity done in the class useful to them.

2.3.6.1. Experiential Learning

Experience is transformed into or used to acquire knowledge. Experiential learning is a conceptual basis for task based language teaching. Learning experience is used as a language learning content by reliving that experience orally and/ or writing their learning intensely. These experiences can be artificially created by asking or allowing them to do different tasks which themselves will promote language learning. 'Learning by doing' is the central idea and the learner's active participation is a must and it possible if the teacher provides them with interesting tasks, which is related to the everyday life, culture,

etc. David Kolb (1984) believes that experiential learning has its roots in subjects like social psychology, humanistic education, developmental education and cognitive theory. Learners make use of what they already know and can do to acquire new knowledge and do skills. Learners "do this by making sense of some immediate experience, and going beyond the exp some immediate experience, and going beyond the experience through a process of reflection and transformation." (Nunan, 2007: 12)

Another theorist of experiential learning Kohonen provides the following maxims for action experiential learning. maxims for action experiential learning.

- Encourage the transformation of knowledge within the learner rather than transmission of knowledge from the teacher to learner.
- Encourage learners to participate actively in small, collaborative groups.
- Embrace a holistic attitude towards subject matter rather than static, atomistic and hierarchical attitude.
- Emphasize process rather than products, learning how to learn, self -enquiring, social and communication skills.
- Encourage self Encourage self-directed rather than teacher directed learning.
- Promote intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation. (quoted in TBLT, Nunan, 2007: p.12)

Kohonen (1992: 37) believes that any learning is a part of personal growth. Experiential learning is based on, this maxim, learning a new language is learner's prerogative and responsibility. Experiential language learning enhances learner's prerogative and responsibility. The learner brings in his/her own personal experiences and thereby adds to the content learning

process instead of waiting for the teacher to do it. All this prove that experiential learning is ideally learner-centred and the learner sidelines teacher becomes an independent and self-directed person.

2.3.6.2. David Kolb and Experiential Learning

David Kolb's 'learning cycle is based on in the concept of experience' and his definition of 'learning' has influenced many linguists. Kolb defines, "Learning is the process whereby knowledge created through transformation of experience." (Kolb, 1984: 38) He considers experience as the base for the generation of knowledge and likes to "suggest through experiential learning theory a holistic integrative perspective on that combines experience, perception, cognition, and behaviour." (Kolb, 1984: 20 -21). He calls 21) He calls his experiential learning model as 'Lewinian Experiential Learning Model'. He creates his own learning theory based on this model. Kolb talks of two aspects in his learning cycle. Concrete and immediate experiences help in producing meaning and validating the learning method.

Immediate personal experience is the focal point for learning, giving life, texture, and subjective personal meaning to abstract concepts and at the same time providing a concrete, publicly shared reference point for testing the implications and validity of ideas created during the learning process. (Kolb, 1984: 21)

Since Kolb's model rests on action research and laboratory teaching, feedback is necessary. The Process of aim-directed action and evaluation of the consequences of this action originates from these feedbacks.

All levels in this model fit into different forms of adaptation to different 'learning styles'. Each learner's learning ability and learning style corresponds to each level mentioned above. Kolb writes:

Learners, if they are to be effective, need four different kinds of abilities – concrete experience abilities, reflective observation abilities, abstract conceptualization abilities, and active experimentation abilities. That is, they must be able to involve themselves fully, openly, and without bias in new experiences. They must be able to reflect on and observe their experiences from many perspectives. They must be able to create concepts that integrate their observations into logically sound theories, and they must be able to use their theories make decisions and solve problems. (Kolb, 1984: 30)

So, each part of the circle refers to varied abilities learners which are required for successful action and thinking. In Kolb's learning cycle, experience is very much subjective and it moves to the rear correlates various levels which refer to learners' varied learning abilities. Elkjaer believes that "Kolb has won such a prominent position in many educational researchers' practice and research... is because he says something that feels intuitively correct, namely it is important to base teaching on participants' own experiences." (Elkjaer, 2010: 86) Experiences for Kolb are a closed circle of the actions and thinking of learners.

Kolb considers learning as a process of creating knowledge. To know Kolb considers learning as a process of creating knowledge. To know more about this learning, human knowledge should be explored to find out the types and the methods through which knowledge was acquired. Knowledge creation happens, whether small or big, in all spheres. Interaction between 'social' and personal' knowledge creates knowledge. Social knowledge is 'the civilized objective accumulation' of the learners' cultural experience. Personal knowledge is collection of each individual learner's 'subjective' experience. Thus knowledge is created by the close interaction among objective and subjective experiences in a 'process called learning.

David Kolb (1984: 3-4) considers learning especially experiential as a lifelong process. EL is based on social psychology, philosophy and cognitive psychology. He says,

The experiential learning model pursues a framework for examining and strengthening critical linkages among education, work, and strengthening the critical linkages among education, work, personal development. It offers a system of competencies for describing job demands and corresponding educational objectives and emphasizes the critical linkages that can be developed the classroom and 'real world' with experiential learning methods. (Kolb, 1984: 3-4)

EL model considers workplace as a place for learning that can enhance and add knowledge. It can facilitate the development of the human personality through meaningful action and career development prospects.

The present research used the experiential learning methods promoted by David Kolb and Kohenen elaborately. ELM was considered to be the most appropriate for the selected respondents as the candidate require 'familiar experiences' to enhance their expression skills.

2.3.7 Activity Based Language Teaching

"By engaging in activities that generate feelings of involvement, urgency and excitement, language students find themselves forgetting their inhibitions and expressing themselves more readily in the target language ". (Rose M. Senior, 2006: 182). Activities that allow students to enjoy and be entertained are very effective. Activity based language learning with games and other task is part of the communicative approach. If games and tasks are selected prepared carefully to suit the students, they are very much relevant. Further these games and fun not only reduce the inhibitions of students but releases their tension and fun not only

reduce the inhibitions of students but releases their tension and nervousness. Since they have to gain language proficiency in a short time, this is more relevant in the case of adult learners. Also students preparing for college education do not have much time and are pressurised. Language teachers in schools find that highly energetic young boys can be streamlined by using activity based language teaching. Teachers can streamline this extra energy age teaching. Teachers can streamline this extra energy to language learning, which is very productive. Communicative games, role -playing, going around the classroom, to interact with others to complete the game, competitive activities where students can game, competitive activities where students can encourage their team mates, chanting, singing or giving dictations, making imaginary telephone conversations, where there is more space and etc., are some of the contents activity bthere is more space and etc., are some of the contents activity based education.

There is a risk of confusing fun with learning. Several educationalists recognized it. According to Ormrod (2000: 601) "Excitement and entertainment should not be thought of as goals in and of themselves. Rather, they are means to a more important goal: achieving instructional goals". A feeling of lightness and fun will make language learners tension free and create an atmosphere for better language learning.

2.2.8. Collaborative Learning

Entire stake holders, including students and teachers, in English language education can collaborate for the following reasons: (i) to experiment with additional methods of teaching, (ii) encouraging an atmosphere Co-operation or collaboration among learners instead of competition for which is practiced by the traditional teaching approaches, (iii) collaborative learning will create a situation where all stake holders benefit in equal quantity and terms by sharing information and knowledge,

making it a win-win situation, (iv) placing the learner at the centre of learning process instead of the traditional teacher centered process. (Nunan, Introduction. 2003: 1)

All students are varied and study in his/her own way. These differences in the students' style of learning might be considered for choosing the right learning experiences. Nunan (2003: 2) says, "At each stage in the curriculum process, be it planning, implementation or evaluation, information about learners (and, where feasible, from learners) will be used to guide the selection content feasible, from learners) will be used to guide the selection content, learning experiences and the means of assessing outcomes".

Learner centered curriculum and traditional curriculum agrees on planning, implementation and evaluation. Intense participation of the students in decision -making method, which includes deciding the subjects of curriculum and the teaching method, which was hither to done by teacher only, there is a collaborative effort, and that makes learner centred approach distinct and more significant. (Nunan 1988: 2)

A meaningful and effective collaboration between the learners and teacher can result in the following situation. (i)It improve learning of students can result in the following situation. (i)It improve learning of students can result in the following situation. (i) It improve learning of students in addition to their learning about learning. (ii) It may improve knowledge about the target language, and about (their) learning. (iii) It will improve their communication skills. (iv) Learner has to deal with, understand and adjust with the differences between group needs to deal with, understand and adjust with the differences between group needs and individual needs during language learning process, 'both in s individual needs during language learning process, 'both in social, procedural terms as well linguistic, content terms'. Learner will come to know that the curriculum

subjects and learning methods are very much connected. Also he will know that the decision know that the decision-making tasks are really communicative actions. (Nunan, making tasks are really communicative actions. (Nunan, 2003: 3)

Collaborative learning will help students 'to acquire common learning goals'. It encourages co-operation on the other hand traditional teaching methods pave way for competition. Meanwhile collaborative learning will give opportunities for learners to have occasions for a very healthy competition like competing with other groups and pairs of his class. The successes or failures here will not be personal and in this can they can have the benefits of competition like facing challenges, putting more effort, having a competitive spirit etc and avoid the ill effects of traditional competitive classroom practices. Stevens, Madden, Slavin and Farnish (1987) came to a conclusion that learners using cooperative style outperformed learners who got traditional instruction, in linguistic, grammatical and communication skills. The findings "support the link between the communicative approach to foreign language instruction and cooperative learning in small groups. The study demonstrates how to forge a link between the content and process of instruction" (Bejarano 1987:483)

In tasks where learners negotiate for meaning or are required to negotiate for meaning are significantly appropriate for the development of target language. (Nunan. Introduction. 2003: 4)

Bassano and Christison (1988) suggest three areas in which cooperative learning can be significant. They are: "(1) classroom environment and social tasks; (2) process tasks such as peer tutoring and goal setting and (3) progress monitoring and evaluative tasks". They are of the opinion that classrooms and social tasks are ideally suitable for creating cooperation which will lead to better learning. They also suggest that learners can handle

responsibilities like, arranging and maintaining of the classroom, keeping the attendance records, making announcements regarding any matters and get feedbacks regarding discipline matters. These duties are in addition to the more important work they have to do, they are: choosing the task activities, setting the goal for each task, developing the materials for pre, main and post tasks, assessing themselves and others and finally creating and maintaining progress charts. (Nunan, Introduction. 2003: p 4)

Armstrong gives a list of five advantages collaborative teaching approaches.

1. Team teaching permits team members to take advantage of individual teacher strengths in planning for instruction and individual teacher strengths in planning for instruction and working with learners.
2. Team teaching spurs creativity because teachers know they must teach for their colleagues as well their learners.
3. Team learning facilitates individualized instruction because it is possible to provide learning environments involving close personal contact between teacher and learner. contact between teacher and learner. contact between teacher and learner.
4. Team teaching provides for better sequencing and pacing of increments of instruction because perceptions of an individual teacher must be verified by at least one other team member.
5. Team teaching builds program continuity over time. Team teaching programs abide. Specific teachers within a team do not (1977:65-86).

Chapter 3

Nuances of Language Acquisition and Language Learning

3.1. Introduction

Frequently the terms "language acquisition" and "language learning" are used interchangeably. Some linguists distinguish between them. Stephen Krashen (1988), an expert in the field of linguistics, specializing in theories of language acquisition and development, contrasted the two terms. According to Krashen acquisition represents "unconscious" learning which takes place when attention is focused on meaning rather than language form, while learning is a "conscious" process that occurs when the learner's objective is to learn about the language itself, rather than to understand messages conveyed through the language. (Lightbown & Spada 2006). Steven Krashen's hypotheses and the "acquisition–learning" distinction concern second language acquisition, rather than the acquisition of the first language, the mother tongue.

3.2. Language Acquisition

Language acquisition refers to the process of natural assimilation, involving intuition and subconscious learning. It is the product of real interactions between people in environments

of the target language and culture, where the learner is an active player. It is similar to the way children learn their native tongue, a process that produces functional skill in the spoken language without theoretical knowledge. It develops familiarity with the phonetic characteristics of the language as well as its structure and vocabulary, and is responsible for oral understanding, the capability for creative communication and for the identification of cultural values.

In acquisition-inspired methodology, teaching and learning are viewed as activities that happen on a personal and psychological level. The acquisition approach praises the communicative act and develops self-confidence in the learner.

3.3. Language Learning

The concept of language learning is linked to the traditional approach to the study of languages and today is still generally practiced in high schools worldwide. Attention is focused on the language in its written form and the objective is for the student to understand the structure and rules of the language, whose parts are dissected and analyzed. The task requires intellectual effort and deductive reasoning. Language-learning inspired methods are progressive and cumulative, normally tied to a preset syllabus that includes memorization of vocabulary. It seeks to transmit to the student knowledge about the language, its functioning and grammatical structures, its contrasts with the student's native language, knowledge that hopefully will produce the practical skills of understanding and speaking the language.

When we think of "language learning" we need to understand two clearly distinct concepts. One involves receiving information about the language, transforming it into knowledge through intellectual effort and storing it through memorization. The other involves developing the skill of interacting with foreigners to understand them and speak their language. The first

concept is called "language learning", while the other is referred to as "language acquisition". These are separate ideas and we will show that neither is a natural consequence of the other.

3.4. Interrelationship between Acquisition and Learning

The distinction between acquisition and learning is one of the hypotheses (the most important) established by the American Stephen Krashen (1988) in his highly regarded theory of foreign language acquisition known as the Natural Approach.

Linguists distinguish between language acquisition and language learning. Children acquire language through a subconscious process during which they are unaware of grammatical rules. This happens especially when they acquire their first language. They usually have a basic knowledge of the grammar. Language Acquisition is the manner of learning a language by immersion. It provides the student with the practical knowledge of the language. Whereas, language learning focuses on providing theoretical knowledge of a language.

Language is the primary form of communication that humans use. However, language is not something that is taught to children. A child will pick up his/her native language just by being around other people, mainly their families. This is called language acquisition. The child acquires the language without any conscious thought or study. In fact, by the time a child is five years old, he/she can express ideas clearly and almost perfectly from the point of view of language and grammar. This is despite any formal studying of the language.

Language learning, on the other hand, is a structured learning of a language. This is the process that most people follow when trying to learn another language. Here the student is made to study lists of vocabulary, as well as sentence structure

and grammar. This is the most common method used in schools and language learning centers.

Language learning is generally considered to be a slower process than language acquisition. There are people who study a language for years without mastering it. The main difference between Language Acquisition and Language Learning is that Language Acquisition is the manner of learning a language by immersion. It provides the student with the practical knowledge of the language, for example, the student might not know the grammar rule but is still able to immaculately converse with a native.

Whereas, language learning focuses on providing theoretical knowledge of a language. In this case, the student might know all the proper grammar rules and the correct ways of sentence structuring, but might still lack the confidence to have a conversation with a native. Hence, as stated by Stephen Krashen, students who are taught in a formal, structured way will "learn" the language but never fully acquire it.

By the time a child is five years old, s/he can express ideas clearly and almost perfectly from the point of view of language and grammar. Although parents never sit with children to explain to them the workings of the language, their utterances show a superb command of intricate rules and patterns that would drive an adult crazy if s/he tried to memorize them and use them accurately. This suggests that it is through exposure to the language and meaningful communication that a first language is acquired, without the need of systematic studies of any kind. When it comes to second language learning in children, you will notice that this happens almost identically to their first language acquisition. And even teachers focus more on the communicative aspect of the language rather than on just rules and patterns for the children to repeat and memorize. In order to acquire language, the learner needs a source of natural communication.

The emphasis is on the text of the communication and not on the form. Young students who are in the process of acquiring a second language get plenty of "on the job" practice. They readily acquire the language to communicate with classmates. In short, we see this tendency in which second language teachers are quite aware of the importance of communication in young learners and their inability to memorize rules consciously (although they will definitely acquire them through a hands-on approach just as they did with their mother tongue).

Unfortunately, when it comes to adult students, a quick look at the current methodologies and language courses available clearly shows that communication is set aside, neglected or even disregarded. In almost all cases, courses revolve around grammar, patterns, repetitions, drillings and rote memorization without even a human interlocutor to interact with.

The very same courses that promise you language independence and the ability to communicate upon completion of the courses do NOT offer you a single chance to engage in meaningful conversations. How many times have you bought or read about "the ultimate language course on CD" in which the learner simply has to sit in front of a computer to listen to and repeat words and phrases time and again. That is not communication. That is the way you train a parrot! The animal will definitely learn and repeat a few phrases and amuse you and your friends, but it will never ever be able to communicate effectively.

How could you be expected to communicate if you are never given the chance to speak with a real person? Language without real communication is as useless as Saint Valentine's day without lovers or Children's day without kids. In some other scenarios, in which there is a teacher, the work done in class is mostly grammatically oriented: tenses, rules, multiple choice exercises and so on and so forth. One may ask is this similar to the

way in which a child "acquires a language?" The answer could be negative. No wonder why so many people fail in acquiring a second language naturally. Simply because whatever they are doing is highly unnatural and devoid of meaning to them. This is the field of language learning.

Language learning as seen today is not communicative. It is the result of direct instruction in the rules of language. And it certainly is not an age-appropriate activity for your young learners – as it is not for adults either. In language learning, students have conscious knowledge of the new language and can talk about that knowledge. They can fill in the blanks on a grammar page. Research has shown, however, that knowing grammar rules does not necessarily result in good speaking or writing. A student who has memorized the rules of the language may be able to succeed on a standardized test of English language but may not be able to speak or write correctly.

As teachers, it is our duty to make sure that our students "acquire" rather than "learn" the language.

Comparison between Language Acquisition and Language Learning:

	Language Acquisition	**Language Learning**
Meaning	Picking up a language	Studying a language
Focus	Practical Knowledge	Theoretical Knowledge
Method	Unconscious, implicit	Conscious, explicit
Situations	Informal situations	Formal situations
Grammar	Does not use grammatical rules	Uses grammatical rules

Dependency	Depends on attitude	Depends on aptitude
Order of learning	Stable order of learning	Simple to complex order of learning

First, we ought to consider that languages are complex, arbitrary, irregular phenomena, full of ambiguities, in constant random and uncontrollable evolution. Therefore, the grammatical structure of a language is too complex and abstract to be categorized and defined by rules

Even if some partial knowledge of the functioning of the language is reached, it is not easily transformed into communication skills. What happens in fact is the opposite: to understand the functioning of a language with its irregularities is a result of being familiar with it. Rules and exceptions will make sense and grammar, word choice and pronunciation will be employed appropriately if it "sounds" right. Language analysis and the deductive, rule-driven study of grammar are not only ineffective to produce communicative ability, but also frustrating. It is much easier and more enjoyable to acquire a language than it is to learn a language.

Krashen (1988) finally concludes that language acquisition is more efficient than language learning for attaining functional skill in a foreign language not only in childhood. Language learning is limited to a complementary role in the form of support lessons and study materials, and will be useful only for adult students that have an analytical and reflective learning style and make good use of the monitoring function. Language learning will also be more useful for languages with a higher level of regularity, as well as in situations where the number of students per group cannot be reduced. The efficient teaching of languages isn't that tied to a packaged course of structured lessons based on grammatical sequencing, translation or oral drilling, nor is

the one that relies on technological resources. Efficient teaching is personalized, takes place in a bicultural environment and is based on the personal skills of the facilitator in building relationships and creating situations of real communication with comprehensible input focusing on the learner's interests.

3.5. Introversion vs. Extroversion in language Learning

The effect of grammar knowledge on a learner's communicative competence depends significantly on that person's personality. People who tend to be introverts, that show a lack of self-confidence and often are perfectionists, will benefit little from understanding the grammar of the language and its irregularities. The result can be even adverse, in the case of languages with a high degree of irregularity the student who is insecure by his nature will develop a block that discourages spontaneity due to his awareness from experience that there is a high probability of making an error. On the other hand, people who tend to be extroverts, who talk too spontaneously, improvising all the time, also benefit little from learning. Their monitoring function is almost inoperative and subject to an impulsive personality that manifests itself without much concern with accuracy. The only ones who benefit from learning are people whose personalities are midway between introvert and extrovert, and manage to apply the monitoring function in a moderate and effective form. However, this monitoring will only function if there are three simultaneous conditions: Concern with form: The learner must be concerned with correctness of the linguistic form in addition to the content of the message. Knowledge of the rules: There must be a rule that applies to the case and the learner knows the rule and existing exceptions. Time availability: When producing language, the learner must have enough time to assess the alternatives provided by the applicable rules. The graph

below illustrates the relationship between personality types and the efficiency of language learning.

3.6. Age and the Efficiency of Acquisition vs. Learning

The majority of studies as well as the experience of those in the field of SLA indicate that the lower the age the easier, the faster and the more complete the learning will be. In the same way that age is a determining factor in foreign language learning in general, it is also a determining factor in the level of efficiency of acquisition and learning. Disconsidering individual differences like personality, motivation, 3 hearing, and taking the normal learner as a sample, we can say that the lower the age, the more efficient acquisition will be over learning. At the same time, learning demonstrates to be partially efficient only during the age of intellectual maturity, as the graph below represents.

3.7. Native vs. Non-native Instructor

Native and non-native teachers have different talents. Likewise, acquisition-inspired and learning-inspired language programs require different talents. Language teaching in Brazil is predominantly based on language learning, strictly following a syllabus and working with the written language or following sequences of lessons with oral drills and repetition exercises. For this kind of teaching, non-native teachers with the experience of "already having walked down the same path", may have an advantage over native speakers. In language acquisition, however, the primary goal is human interaction, in which one functions as a facilitator, providing plenty of comprehensible input, and through which the other (the learner) selects his own route building his skill in a direction that interests him personally or professionally. Instead of a syllabus, language acquisition programs offer intercultural communication through a personal relationship. Here, the presence of genuine representatives

of the language and culture that one intends to assimilate is fundamental. Native or near-native instructors, therefore, have a clear advantage in a communicative approach, inspired by the concept of language acquisition.

3.8. Group Size

Group size is vitally important in the implementation of second language acquisition programs. For acquisition to take place the target language and culture must prevail all the time in the group activities. The bigger the number of learners, the more difficult the challenge will be for instructors to impose their language and less personal the interaction with each learner.

3.9. First and Second Language Acquisition

Children's acquisition of their first language seems remarkable given the apparent ease and rapidity with which they master its complexities. This success in developing proficiency in a first language (L1) is often contrasted to the comparative failure of adult language learners to develop a similar level of proficiency in a second language (L2). Many theorists ascribe first language acquisition (FLA) to an innate capacity, which seems neither to require explicit tuition, nor a particular social environment for its actualization. The question is then posed as to why this posited innate capacity appears to be lost or impaired in the majority of adult second language learners.

This essay will begin with a discussion of FLA, arguing that there is strong evidence for an innate linguistic capacity that assists in the acquisition of linguistic structures. However, by broadening the conception of language to include semantics and pragmatics, the child's environmental and social interactions become increasingly important. The capacity to learn language is therefore multifarious and due to a seemingly inextricable

combination of biological and environmental factors. It is with this in mind that the essay will turn to consider whether similar language learning capacities exist within second language learners, noting from the outset some difficulties that arise in making cross-learner comparisons.

The diversity among second language learners and their contexts of learning must be acknowledged. Although SLA theories encompass the acquisition of languages "by children and adults learning naturalistically or with the aid of instruction, … in second or foreign language settings" (Long, 1993, p.225 cited in Jordan, 2004, p.10), the second part of this essay will reflect the professional orientation of the author as a teacher, focusing on the comparison of child L1 learners with adult L2 learners in a foreign language classroom. It is argued that the most salient differences between these two groups are those of age, learning environment, and prior linguistic and cultural experience. By examining some of the neurological, cognitive, developmental, linguistic, and affective impacts of each of these factors, it will be seen that the question of L2 learning capacity is a complex interaction of a multiplicity of factors.

3.9.1. First Language Acquisition (FLA)

The overwhelming success of L1 acquisition begs the question of how it is possible. Explanations by behaviorists that language is learned through imitation and habit formation were refuted by Chomsky as being untenable in view of 'the poverty of the stimulus', namely that the experiences available to children are inadequate in quantity and quality to account for "the non-random mistakes children make, the speed with which the basic rules of grammar are acquired, the ability to learn language without any formal instruction, and the regularity of the acquisition process across diverse languages and environmental circumstances" (Fromkin, Blair & Collins, 2000, p.330).

This led to the assertion that language must in some way be 'wired into' the human brain, a position often associated with Chomsky's theory of a Language Acquisition Device (LAD). A correlate of the LAD is that human languages must share a Universal Grammar (UG); that is they "share the same general design characteristics, are subject to the same formal constraints, and draw on a common pool of language 'universals'" (Singleton & Ryan, 2004, p.186). Through exposure to a particular language, nativists view FLA as "the result of imposing structure on the input data as a result of the built-in expectations" (Skehan, 1998, p.77). The linguistic environment is unimportant except as a triggering device; hence children in diverse environments appear to acquire aspects of their L1, such as morpheme acquisition, in a set order (Brown, 1973, cited in Singleton & Ryan, 2004). As Pinker (2004, p.287) observes, these innate constraints set children free to create language anew, as exemplified in Bickerton's studies of creolization (Bickerton, 1983).

Although input can be 'impoverished', it needs to occur within a 'Critical Period' (CP). Singleton and Ryan (2004, p.33) cite Lenneberg (1967) as seeing the critical period as beginning at age two and ending around puberty, a period coinciding with the brain lateralization process. Despite ongoing debate as to the definition and significance of the CP, research into the acquisition of language by isolated and deaf children suggests that beyond the CP, "the human brain appears to be unable to acquire much of syntax and inflectional morphology" (Fromkin et al., 2011, p.343).

However, syntax and inflectional morphology is only one, albeit important, aspect of language. By downplaying the importance of aspects of language such as semantics, pragmatics and discourse, the importance of the environment and the social interactions through which a child constructs a holistic understanding and ability to use language are overlooked.

3.9.1.1. The importance of the Environment and Social Interactions in FLA

McLaughlin (1984, p.32) disputes Chomsky's claim that language input to the child is "meager and degenerate". Studies into 'caretaker language' reveal it be well-suited in its lexicon, intonation, and grammar to hold the attention of a child and to make meaning apparent. Brown (2000, p.40) cites Brown and Hanlon's findings that the frequency of occurrence of a linguistic item in a mother's speech may affect the order of linguistic development, and Krause, Duchesne and Bochner (2007) cite Hart and Risley's (1995) study showing a positive correlation between young children's language experience and verbal intelligence scores at ages 9 and 10.

Such data lends support to the constructivist view of language as "constructed by the child using inborn mental equipment but operating on information provided by the environment" (Hoff, 2005, p. 16). Bruner (cited in Garton & Pratt, 1998) argues that to support the LAD, there must also be appropriate social scaffolding in the form of a LASS (Language Acquisition Support System). By engaging the child in daily rituals and routines, a child's family provides clear and emotionally charged contexts for language use. Likewise, Berko-Gleason (cited in Brown, 2000, p.42) argues that for the development of discourse competence "interaction, rather than exposure is required." "Theory theory" (Bowerman & Levinson, 2001, p.10) also acknowledges the effects of experience on innate cognitive foundations, viewing children as being born with innate conceptual biases or "theories" that they restructure to fit with their experiences. Such a conception offers a better explanation for the extent and depth of semantic variation across languages than can nativist theories (Bowerman & Levinson, 2001).

Therefore, when looking at the development of a holistic L1 proficiency, nativist conceptions of language and linguistic

capacity appear incomplete in their conceptual and explanatory power.

3.9.2. Second Language Acquisition or Learning

The quest to identify significant and potential factors leading to success or failure in the acquisition or learning of a second (SL) or foreign language (FL) has been part of research in second language acquisition (SLA) for quite some time. Because these potential factors are many, any investigation of this kind needs to have some clear understanding of SLA as a phenomenon, particularly the many different aspects that are involved in the learning or acquiring of a second language. Having some understanding of those aspects would provide a good basis as to the kind of factors to be investigated.

Ellis (1986) refers to Second Language Acquisition as a non-uniformed as well as an unpredictable phenomenon. This view immediately signifies the complexity and diversity of acquiring or learning a second language. The complexity of SLA as a process leads Beebe (1988) to suggest that a multiple interdisciplinary approach can be used to view SLA in order to achieve a full understanding. Included in this multiple interdisciplinary perspective are: the psycholinguistic perspective which stresses the central role played by the mental processing in second language acquisition; the sociolinguistic perspective which puts an emphasis on the role of social context in the acquisition of linguistic code and how the social context influences the development of communicative competence in second language; and the neurolinguistic perspective which seeks to establish relationships between the brain and acquiring, knowing and using a second language.

Beebe suggests further that second language acquisition be looked at from a classroom research-based perspective which concentrates not only on the ways in which second language

instruction affects the processes, rate and ultimate level of second language attainment but also the interactions and activities that are going on in the classroom; and a bilingual education perspective which generally focuses on the role of first language (L I) on the acquisition of the second language (L2).

This is definitely necessary in the case of Tamil because most students begin their formal learning of English as a second language when they start schooling at primary level. To many students, even their exposure to English only begins when they go to school. There is a high possibility then that instruction contributes to the success or failure of their language attainment. The role of the Ll on the learning of English (L2) among Tamil students may also be very influential as most students would be very fluent already in their Tamil (LI) before they begin to learn English at school.

What is being reflected by this multiple interdisciplinary approach in relation to any investigation of potential factors leading to success and failure hi SLA, is the fact that in order to identity what those factors might be, one needs to look at SLA from these various perspectives. Only by doing that, can a true survey of SLA be achieved (Beebe, 1988:4).

Another way of looking at SLA is reflected again by Ellis's view, "Second language acquisition is a product of many factors pertaining to the learner on the one hand and the learning situation on the other" (1986:4). What is offered by this view is not an entirely different description of SLA from the one mentioned above, but rather an alternate way of organising the same aspects of SLA and explaining them in terms of their specific relevance to factors related to the learner of the language and the situation where learning takes place. Even within this approach, the perspectives mentioned above cannot be ignored. This approach has been taken up by researchers in factor studies, though with various modifications as to how these factors are conceptualized and categorised.

Pienemann and Johnston (1987), for example, came up with a distinction between factors which are 'external' and 'internal' to the learner. Under the title of 'external factors' are variables ranging from Ll, social environment, and biological factors such as age. 'Internal factors', on the other hand, are described as aspects of the learner's cognitive and linguistic capacities and the mental structures which determine these capacities. This general typology of factors was incorporated into their multidimensional framework used in investigating factors relevant to the acquisition of a second language.

Another way of categorising these factors is shown in Spolsky's general theory of second language (1989). Spolsky claims that the achievement of the various possible outcomes in second language learning is a result of four groups of factors. His claim is expressed in this formula, Kf= Kp +A+ M + 0, where Kf stands for knowledge and skills in the second language at some future time. The achievement of Kf then depends on these factors: Kp which is knowledge and skills at the moment including general knowledge of the learner's first and other languages; A which represents various components of ability including physiological, biological, intellectual, and cognitive skills; M which represents various affective factors such as personality, attitudes, motivation, and anxiety; and 0 which stands for opportunity for learning the language, consisting of time multiplied by kind, the latter covering the range of formal and informal situations in which the learner is exposed to the language.

So significant are these factors in second language learning that Spolsky goes on to claim that "each of the parts will make a difference to the result: if anyone is absent, there can be no learning, and the greater any one is, the greater the amount of learning" (1989:15). This claim is significantly relevant to the study of success and failure in second language learning, as success may be accounted for by the presence of some of these

factors and failure may be due to the absence or lack of some of these factors.

Although different, theoretical frameworks may put different emphases on these factors and their influences on SLA, Olshtain, Shohamy, Kemp, and Chatow (1990) argue that it has been identified in literature that they have potential to affect the success or failure in SLA, and they generally exist in the following categories: (a) the learner context or the learning conditions, including the educational treatment (formal/informal learning situations) and the amount of exposure to the target language (TL) in its natural setting (Beebe, 1985); (b) the social context: attitudes and motivation deriving from the political. cultural and socio-linguistic milieu (Gardner, 1980); (c) the learner's characteristics: cognitive variables encompassing language aptitude, academic knowledge of one's first language (Ll}, and lQ level, as well as other individual features (Cummins, 1979a, 1979b, 1980, 1981).

In the case of the Tamil students, these factors can be found to have impacts on the differences of individual language attainment among students. Students come to school from different backgrounds and therefore having different levels of exposure and practice in the use of English language. Some students are more fortunate to come from home background where both parents are well educated and therefore able to use English as a medium of communication at home. Those students may be more successful in English learning than those who have no exposure or practice in the use of English in the home. Here they may differ mainly because of the different opportunities they have for the learning of the language (0 factors) and because of these different opportunities for learning, they have different levels of knowledge and skills (Kp factors) in their English learning. It can also be noted among Tamil students that some have outgoing personality and are not shy and may be likely to learn English better than those who are shy. The general cognitive ability of the

students can also contribute to the success and failure in English learning among the Tongan teamers of English language.

Considering the many factors which can potentially contribute to the success and failure in learning a second language, limited space would make it impossible to discuss all of them here. The rest of this literature review, therefore, will focus on discussing only those factors which have direct relevance and bearings on this study. Those factors are: the age, students' perceived ability in English, frequency of use of English with NonTamil speakers, integrative motivation, career aspirations, and education aspirations.

However, before doing that, it may be worth considering what Spolsky (1989) says, "To be able to discuss intelligently the contradictions that lead to second language learning requires a clear and precise definition of what it means to know a second language" (p 30.). Along the same vein of thinking, though concentrating on the linguistic competence, Gregg (1989) argues, 11Thus, to account for the acquisition of linguistic competence, one needs a theory of language, for we cannot understand the acquisition of something without an understanding of what that something is11 (p. 11).

These arguments appear to suggest that we cannot fully understand the effects of those factors unles5 we can define what it is that they are affecting. In other words, we cannot understand the effects of such factors on learning a second language unless we can describe what it means to know a second language.

3.9.2.1. Knowing a Second Language

3.9.2.1.1 Interlanguage Theory

One of the initial concerns in conceptualising what it means to know a second language has been embodied in the need to explain the knowledge a language learner has of the target

language. The Interlanguage Theory is one of the early attempts to explain the knowledge of a second language within the field of SLA.

Initially the word interlanguage was coined by Selinker (1972) to describe the knowledge of an L2 as a set of structural rules or intermediate grammars constructed by second language learners on their way to the target language. Although this grammar is incomplete and imperfect in nature, Selinker argues, it forms a unified whole. Selinker sees this grammar as a product of different psychological mechanisms and its development is not like that of a natural language.

Adjemian (1976) modifies Selinker's view on the second language learner's language by stressing that the learner's knowledge of a second language (interlanguage) has a dynamic character which means that the learners may use rules and items from the first language if they are put in such situations, or they may distort or overgeneralise a rule from the target language when attempting to produce a meaning. In such ways new items or rules are added to the learner's grammar. Adjemian, unlike Se1inker, also argues that because of the systematicity found in the Ieamer's language (interlanguage), it should be analysed linguistically as a rule-governed behaviour just like any other natural language.

Tarone (1979, 1983, 2013) agrees with Adjemian that interlanguages operate on the same principles as natural languages but she differs from Adjemian in that she stressed the notion of variability in the learners' knowledge of second languages. Underlying this notion of variability is the argument that an interlanguage is analysable into a set of styles that are dependent on the context of use. Tarone (1983), for example, maintains that variability in interlanguage is caused by style-shifting along a continuum which is in tum caused by variable shifts in the degree of attention which the learner pays to language form. This style-

shifting continuum includes five different styles ranging from a more pidgin-like style, 'Vernacular Style' to a more target-like or native-like style, 'Careful Style'. From this perspective, the knowledge of a second language is essentially to be characterised in structural or competence terms. In essence, for Tarone, interlanguage (learner's language) is not a single system, but a set of styles which can be used in different social contexts.

From this very brief discussion of an interlanguage model, a language learner's knowledge of a second language is described as a unified systematic whole operating on the same principles as natural languages and, like knowledge of a first language, knowledge of a second language is marked by variability.

These characteristics of interlanguage can be easily identified among the Tamil students as learners of English as a second language. As students progress from junior to senior levels of secondary school, one can easily identify the dynamic nature of their use of English. Students tend to add more English words and rules in their use of language and their style progresses from being pidgin-like to a more native-like style.

Obviously, their knowledge of English is incomplete and still imperfect, but for the students it is a unified whole which they can use already as a medium of expression and communication at school.

3.9.2.1.2 Forms of Knowledge

One distinction which is generally recognised in SLA is that between active and passive knowledge or perhaps better expressed as productive and receptive skills. According to Spolsky (1989), individual language learners vary in their productive and receptive skills, and typically, receptive language skills develop before productive language skills.

This distinction between receptive and productive language skills raises other issues relating to the existence of forms of second language knowledge, particularly the relation between knowledge and the ability to use it, between structure and function, between competence and process models, or between what Spolsky (I 989) calls, duality of knowledge and skills.

Chomsky's linguistic theory (Universal Grammar), though initially used to describe LI acquisition, has been the most commonly applied theory to second language data. Chomsky (1975) says, "It does not seem quite accurate to take 'knowledge of English' to be a capacity or ability, though it enters into the capacity or ability exercised in language use. In principle, one might have the cognitive structure that we canv' knowledge of English' fully developed, with no capacity to use this structure." (p. 23). This argument reflects a distinction between two kinds of knowledge, in Gregg's words,(1988), between 'knowledge that' and 'knowledge how'.

Within the Chomskyan perspective, 'knowledge that' is commonly referred to as 'competence' which is the knowledge that we have about our language, knowledge which goes beyond what we produce, to include the recognition of ambiguities, ungranunatical utterances, and so forth. The 'knowledge how' is the 'performance' which refers to what we actually produce, or our linguistic behaviour.

In applying the linguistic theory to second language acquisition, Gregg argues that in characterising second language knowledge, as in characterising primary language knowledge, it is necessary to differentiate between competence and performance. A competence-based approach based on Chomskyan perspective to SLA would therefore advocate the development oflinguistic or grammatical competence as to be the central domain of second language learning. Gregg goes along with this view and states,

"As have often been pointed out, acquisition of language involves more than the acquisition of rules for the production of utterances. It involves the acquisition of knowledge, including knowledge that will never find expression in output: knowledge of ambiguity, anaphoric relations, possible versus impossible interpretations of sentences, possible versus impossible sentences, and so forth. It is this knowledge, acquired or innate, that I believe should be viewed as the domain of SLA theory" (1989: 18).

From a more psycholinguistic perspective, Bialystok (1978, 1981) proposes a processing model which attempts to explain the distinction between the second language learner's knowledge of a second language and his ability to use that language. In the final development of his model, Bialystok argues that knowing a second language involves two distinct components: "the mental representation of systematic, organized information about the target language and the procedures for effectively and efficiently retrieving that knowledge in appropriate situations" (Bialystok and Sharwood-Smith, 1985:106). Because these components are so distinct, according to Bialystok, the learning of each may be independent, except that a structure must be represented mentally before it can be used (Spolsky, 1989). In as far as the retrieval procedures of her model, Bialystok states that there can be a difference among the learners in 'efficiency', referred to as 'automaticity' which is seen as the basis for fluency. Because fluency is distinct from and independent of knowledge, a language learner may be accurate and hesitant, accurate and fluent, or inaccurate and fluent (Spolsky, 1989).

Sharwood-Smith (1986) follows on from Bialystok and proposes a psychological model which distinguishes competence and control. Competence in his model, as in Chomsky's theory of generative grammar, refers to the abstract representation of knowledge, mainly in the form of analysed or unanalysed rules, stored in the long term memory. Control involves mechanisms which allows accessibility to the knowledge in the long term

memory and integrate with various information which have been accessed in acts of utterance comprehension and utterance production (Bialystok and Sharwood Smith, (1985).

In applying the information processing theory of cognition and memory proposed by Anderson (1982, 1983), O'Malley, Chamot, and Walker (1987) highlight Anderson's distinction of'declarative knowledge' (what we know about or static information in memory) and 'procedural knowledge' (what we know how to do or dynamic information in memory). According to Anderson's theory, declarative knowledge includes examples of things we know about including definitions of words, facts and rules, and this type of knowledge is represented in long-term memory as abstract meaning. In applying this type of knowledge to SLA, information in either the L I or L2 has a meaning-based representation and would be stored as declarative knowledge through either propositional networks or schema. This is factual and rule-bound information and the way it is organized in memory may have a substantial effect on the L2 learner's ability to transfer it effectively and accurately into the new language (O'Malley, Chamot, and Walker, 1987).

According to Anderson's theory, our ability to understand and generate language or apply our knowledge of rules to solve a problem would be examples of procedural knowledge. Procedural knowledge is represented in memory as production systems, and Anderson argues that all complex cognitive skills can be represented as productions. In applying this type of knowledge to SLA, O'Malley, Chamot, and Walker (1987) argue that, "knowing about language as a grammatical system, which involves knowing the rules underlying syntax, semantics, and phonology, is not a sufficient condition for knowing how to use the language functionally. In order to use a language for communicative purposes, procedural knowledge is required" (p. 295). The focus therefore is on language as a skill rather than on language as an object of study.

Although inner processing theories are considered limited for their lack of empirical evidence, and linguistic theories are regarded insufficient to define language in its completeness, their explanations of mental processes and types of knowledge involved in language acquisition are useful in describing what it means to know a second language.

On one hand, the language learners' knowledge of a second language is described in terms of their knowledge of the structures and rules of that language. It is claimed that underlying all cognitive activity is this perfect and formal system unlike that usually displayed by the record of linguistic behaviour. Central to this structuralist approach is the view that language is a hierarchical system of units - sounds, morphemes, words, and grammatical structures.

On the other hand, the language learners' knowledge of a second language is described in terms of their knowledge of how to use the grammar of that language to carry out various functions. This knowledge is normally displayed in the learners' performance in using the second language. In summary, knowing a second language does not only mean knowing the grammatical system of the language (linguistic competence) but also having the ability to retrieve such knowledge and use it to perform various functions in that language (skills).

From experience, one can easily identify the lack of these forms of knowledge among students when using English to carry out various functions at school. For example, students' failure to express their ideas clearly and appropriately in essay and story writings can be accounted for by a lack in the linguistic competence they have in English.

3.9.2.1.3 Communicative Competence

Having the ability to use the linguistic knowledge in a second language to fulfil a range of purposes in communication

is usually termed communicative competence. In objection to Chomsky's (1965) linguistic theory, which puts an emphasis on describing and explaining the learner's linguistic competence, Hymes (1972) argues that such theory fails to account for a whole dimension, the sociocultural. The work in sociolinguistics linked with pragmatics and discourse analysis has demonstrated that the language learner or speaker has, in addition to his linguistic code grammar, other higher internalised rule systems which are also important in determining language behaviour. The use of these rule systems are constrained by contextual variables. Therefore with an increasing knowledge of grammatical rules, the learner develops a knowledge which Hymes considers essentially as "an ability when to speak, when not, and ... what to talk about, with whom, when, where, in what manner" (1972:277). This ability is what is identified in literature as communicative competence.

Since language use is contextually constrained, a second language learner is regarded competent if his choice of linguistic code is appropriate to the context. From a sociolinguistic perspective, 'context' consists of those aspects of the situation which activate choice (Ellis, 1987). In Lyons' words (l977), context is "a theoretical construct in the postulation of which the linguist abstracts from the actual situation and establishes as contextual all the factors which, by virtue of their influence upon the participants in a language event, systematically determine the form, the appropriacy and the meaning of utterances" (p. 572). The actual situation referred to here consists of both linguistic and extralinguistic elements.

Ellis (1987) refers to the linguistic elements as the 'linguistic context', which include the preceding and following elements in isolated utterances as well as the verbal environment of whatever category the linguist chooses to examine, and the extralinguistic elements as the 'situational context' which at rnacrolevel include such domains as the school, the family, the church, the government administration, etc., and at the microlevel include such variables

as scene (setting and purpose) and participants participating in a speech event (Brown and Fraser, 1979).

This construct of context, from a sociolinguistic perspective, helps to explain why language users choose their linguistic code the way they do. Knowing a second language therefore goes beyond the knowledge of grammar to appropriately using that knowledge of grammar for communication in different contexts. Canale and Swain's model of communicative competence explains the related competences which a second language learner should acquire in order to be regarded as a competent user of a language. The three competences are:

I. Grammatical competence: knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology

2. Sociolinguistic competence: sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse ...

3. Strategic competence: verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for break-down in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence. (Canale and Swain, 1980: 29-30)

Perhaps it should be pointed out at this point that there is great need to adopt more communicative approaches in the teaching of English as a second language in Tamil. The approaches currently employed are dominantly structural and functional in nature. Students need to be aware of the various social contexts and the appropriate language to use in those various situations. This only makes their knowledge of English as a second language complete.

Using the structural approach, the functional approach, and the communicative approach, as so far discussed, to describe the

language learner's knowledge of a second language is theoretically ideal. The second language learner must know not only the structural rules of the language but also the sociolinguistic rule 'in order to fluently and appropriately function in that language.

3.9.2.2. Language Testing

With a specific reference to any study of factors affecting SLA, Pienemann and Johnston (1987) suggest, "When an attempt is made to sort out factors influencing the development of language proficiency, one is immediately confronted with the problem of measuring proficiency itself' (p 67). This view warrants again a brief discussion on the issue of language testing in this literature review, not only because it has been a major part of this study, but more importantly, language testing can highlight the outcome or achievement thus indicating success or failure in second language learning.

One of the essential problems in any assessment of language proficiency is reflected by what Brindley (1986) say "The field of Language Proficiency Assessment is encumbered with a plethora of confusing terminology. Terms such as “Communicative “competence”, "linguistic competence" "linguistic performance “communicative performance", “language proficiency”, “anguage skill” and so forth are widely used in the literature by different authors in different ways" (p. 3). The disagreement about ways of conceptualising the nature of language proficiency underlies controversies which give rise to a situation where the theory of language proficiency one holds will invariably influence the way one goes about assessing it.

Researchers in second language learning, for example, have suggested ways of making second language teaching and testing more 'communicative' (Canale and Swain, 1980; Oller, 1979) on the grounds that a communicative approach better reflects the nature of language proficiency than one which emphasises the

acquisition of discrete language skills. The diversified theoretical interpretations as to what it means to know a second language, specifically what constitutes second language proficiency, influence the ways in which second language proficiency is measured and assessed?

Spolsky (1989) refers to three approaches in language testing which have been derived from three different theoretical claims. The first claim is that one knows certain parts of the language, he calls it Structural claim. He refers to the second claim as Functional claim, which means that one can use the language for certain purposes. He calls the third claim, General Proficiency claim, which suggests that one has a certain level of general knowledge of the language. These approaches have been used in second language testing, when the language learner's knowledge of a second language is measured and assessed.

3.9.2.2. 1 Testing Structural Knowledge

The structural approach to language testing aims at discovering the atoms of language proficiency. A list or a random sample of linguistic items thought to contribute to knowing a second language are tested. What is sought is evidence that the language Ieamer knows the constituent elements of the language. The accuracy of the learner's performance in such tests is an indication of his competency in the language.

Two theoretical claims underpin this approach to language testing. First, the structural theory to language acquisition which is dealing with the underlying knowledge (competence), how much one knows about a language, rather than the process. The other theoretical claim is the psychometric model which states that the universe of what is tested is assumed to consist of a large number of equally relevant and equally valued items.

The link of structural and psychometric theories marks what Spolsky (1977) refers to as the beginning of modem or

the scientific approach to language testing. Language tests based on this approach are referred to as discrete point tests since they test knowledge of individual or discrete items selected from the structural description of the language.

3.9.2.2.2 Testing Integrated Functions

Essentially this kind of testing integrates a large number of different discrete items by calling on the learners to perform some functions or task using the target language. In this approach, knowing a language or being competent in a language is described as the ability to perform some defined tasks or functions the target language.

This functional approach is based on the assumption that the internal nature of the language is best captured by detailing the many uses to which language can be put. At the simplest level, this approach starts off with a four-way division into productive and receptive control of the spoken and written language. Therefore instead of accumulating a list of structural items, as in discrete tests, this approach aims at listing the various possible functions oflanguage including all the notions that can be expressed in it. This approach has been embodied variously in communicative competence models as well as in notional-functional curriculum.

While this approach can be regarded as a competence model, its interest in the performance side of the knowledge of a language conceives it more to be a process model. In a process model of language acquisition, knowledge in terms of having a knowledge of structures of the language is also included.

3.9.2.2.3 General Proficiency

The general proficiency approach, according to Spolsky, is integrative in nature but it starts from somewhat different principles. The justification for testing overall language

proficiency is of the belief that there is some fundamentally indivisible body of knowledge varying in size from individual to individual, so that individuals can be ranked according to the extent that they have the knowledge.

The argument for the claim of general language proficiency is reflected by what Spolsky (1989) says, " while we cannot specify a minimum of structural knowledge or communicative competences, we can make some general claim about the ranking of one individual relative to him or herself at other times or relative to other people, so that we can say 'X knows more ofthat language now than last month' or 'X knows more that Y' (p. 72).

Spolsky goes on to suggest three ways where the differences can be specified: by testing the structural knowledge (the more items known, the greater total proficiency, by a test of functional knowledge (the more functions controlled, the greater total knowledge), or by an overall test which is a special kind of functional test that taps the generalised ability more directly. By viewing these different ways, it is clearly reflected that knowing a second language involves not only a knowledge of the formal structural system of the language but also using such knowledge for effective communication.

Having such a clear and precise understanding of what it means to know a second language provides a good basis for investigating the factors which might affect its acquisition. Understanding that language is a linguistic, cognitive, and sociolinguistic involvement indicates that factors concerned must be related to these areas. The discussion of what those factors might be will be the focus of the final section.

3.9.2.3. Factors Affecting the Learning of a Second Language

In this section the focus will be on discussing some of the potential factors which can influence the learning of a second

language thus resulting in a lack of success. As discussed earlier on, Spolsky (1989) refers to four groups of factors (Kp, A, M, 0) as necessruy conditions for any effective second language learning. In his argument he stressed that a lack in any one of the four factors might result in no learning at all. This indicates the capacity of those groups of factors to influence the learning of a second language. They are therefore used here as categories under which factors directly relevant to this study are categorised and discussed. Because these factors have no set or necessary order in their contribution to second language learning, they will be presented in the way Spolsky (1989) uses when discussing them in his general theory of second language learning, starting 'with those that are least under the control of an individual language teacher and move progressively to those where the teacher' intervention seems easiest' (p. 83).

Using Spolsky's four categories, therefore, the discussion will start off with 'A' (various components of ability including physiological, biological, intellectual and cognitive skills, then with 'kp' (existing knowledge of the learner including Ll and other knowledges), with 'M' (affective factors including attitudes and motivation), and finally '0' (opportunity for learning the language).

3.9.2.3.1. Characteristics of Second Language Learners

In comparing the L1 and L2 learner, it is apparent that the L1 learner nearly always begins acquiring their L1 from birth (or even in the womb) and is surrounded by other speakers of the L1 throughout their development, whereas the L2 learner can be of any age and in any environment. Given the diversity of L2 learners, this essay will narrow its focus to those learners whom the author teaches; namely adult language learners learning in a classroom. Such learners are typically characterized by

their failure to learn a language to a level approaching native speaker proficiency (Han, 2003), although Widdowson (cited in Deriwianka, 2000, p.254) has pointed out that the concept of "native speaker competence" is not well-defined. Bialystok also observes that "for a particular individual, some aspects of language learning are mastered more easily than are others" (cited in Han, 2003, p.7), again highlighting that the capacity to learn a language is more usefully construed as a multiplicity of competences.

Notwithstanding these issues, in analyzing the capacity of an adult in a classroom setting to learn an L2, the common characteristics that differentiate such a learner from a child acquiring his/her L1 can be made to serve as the basis for investigation. The salient distinctions of age, learning environment, and the L2 learner's prior knowledge of a particular language and culture, serve as factors which can be analyzed as to their neurological, cognitive, linguistic, and affective impacts on capacity.

3.9.2.3.2. Age related factors

One central issue in the discussion of the influential role of age in language acquisition, LI and L2, is the claim of the "Critical Period Hypothesis". The idea of critical period in Biology, according to Singleton (1989), refers to a limited phase in the development of an organism during which a particular activity or competency must be acquired if it is to be incorporated into the behaviour of that organism. On that basis Lenneberg (1967) claimed that the language acquisition process in human beings could not begin to develop before the onset of that period, that is, until a certain level of physical maturation and growth had been attained, which for him was around the age of 2 years old. He also argued that language acquisition does not continue beyond the end of this period, which for him finished at the age

of 13. A rather weaker version of this hypothesis was that the earlier language learning commenced after the critical period began the more efficient it would be, and beyond the end of this period language learning potential declined if not completely disappeared. With the existence of a critical period, maturation could be regarded a constraint to the acquisition process of a language.

For a time the claim that there was a critical period for language acquisition was widely accepted by most linguists and applied linguists. However, since the mid-1970s the critical period hypothesis has been called into doubt. Many researchers have concluded that on the basis of evidence the case for the existence of the critical period is not proven. Opinion, therefore, among Ll and L2 researchers as to the existence of maturational constraints on language acquisition is sharply divided.

In second language acquisition research, Singleton (1989) reports that researchers take divergent positions on this issue. Some researchers show evidence of maturational constraints on L2 acquisition, that is, they take the position that younger second language learners are globally more efficient and successful than older learners. (eg. Scovei 1983; Seliger, 1978; Johnson & Newport, 1989; Patkowski, 1990). Another group of researchers, on the basis of their findings, claim that older learners are more successful and efficient than younger learners even in pronunciation ability (eg. Ellis, 1985; Genesse, 1988; Neufeld, 1979; Snow, 1983, 1987; Major, 1987). There is also another group whose data are mixed. They claim that older learners are initially more efficient in their rate of learning a second language but in the long run the younger a learner is when the acquisition process begins, the more successful the outcome of the process will be (eg, Fathman, 1975; Fathman & Precup, 1983; Hatch, 1983; Mclaughlin, 1984; Singleton, 1989).

Considering the effect of maturational constraint (age) on the rate and ultimate attainment in second language acquisition, Krashen, Long, and Scarcella (1979, 1982), argue that adults acquire the morphology and syntax of a second language faster than young children (rate of acquisition) but child learners will ultimately attain high proficiency levels (McLaughlin, 1988; Long, 1990). They endorsed a 'young-is-better' position, according to which child second language learners are expected to be superior to adolescents and adults in terms of ultimate attainment.

Among the few examples they cite to show that older learners acquire a second language faster than young learners are Asher and Price (1967) who taught Russian to 10 and 12 year-olds and adult students (college age) for 25 minutes and then tested them using Total physical response. In the results, the adults were shown to outperfonn all the child groups. Snow and Hoefuagel-Hohle (1978) assessed the pronunciation, morphology, imitation and translation in Dutch as L2 by 8-10 year-olds, 12-15 year-olds, and adults. They found that adolescents and adults outperformed the children. Other studies of morphology and syntax which favour older over the younger include those of Ekstrand (1976), Fathman (1975), and Morris and Gerstman (1986). Olson & Samuels (1973), Snow & Hoefnagel-Hohle (1977), and Schmid (1986).

In as far as the ultimate attainment in second language acquisition, SLA studies in the areas of phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics give support to the advantage of younger over the older learners. In phonology, Oyama (1976) showed that child Italian immigrants to the United States performed in the range of native speakers controls while those older than 12 on ani val did not. Tahta, Wood, and Lowenthal (1981) observed a sharp drop in imitation abilities in as early as 6 for suprasegrnental phonology in some learners. These results suggest that phonological attainment is strongly conditioned by Iearner age.

Patkowski's three studies (1980a, 1980b, 1982) on syntactic proficiency among immigrants to the United States, Coppieters' (1987) study on grammaticality and semantic judgments of non-native speakers of French, and Johnson and Newport's (1989) study of Korean and Chinese learning English morphology, all strongly suggest the effect of sensitive period (younger age) on the attainment of second language morphology and syntax.

From what has been said and cited so far, there is growing evidence that maturational constraints are at work in second language learning and they are not only confined to phonology. Long (1990) states that, 'while the superior long-term achievement of younger learners is consistent with the notion of maturational constraints on most dimensions of SLA, the apparent inability of older learners to attain native-like proficiency if they begin after a certain age suggests that there is a sensitive period for learning (p. 274).

Most learners of English as a second language in Tonga begin their formal learning of the language at the age of 5 at the primary level. It then ranges to 20 or 21 at secondary and only a few proceed from there to tertiary education. What can be noted generally among the Tongan learners of English is that the older they become, the more difficult it is for them to be native-like especially in the area of phonology. Most can write well, though with some basic errors still consistent. Whether these have something to do with maturational constraints or not would be an interesting investigation.

Fromkin et al. (2000, p.346) notes that, "(y)oung children who are exposed to more than one language before the age of puberty seem to acquire all the languages equally well", whereas Lightbown and Spada (1999, p. 163) note that despite the ability of adults to acquire a great deal of a second language without any formal instruction, the evidence suggests that the use of ungrammatical forms may persist for many years without such

instruction (see also Schmidt, 1983). This suggests that UG, essential to many innatist conceptions of language capacity, does not operate in the same way as it does in child language acquisition and that conscious learning of aspects of syntax and structure may be needed for adult L2 learners in the absence of the child-like ability to form such rules simply from input (c.f. Krashen, 1982).

We have already seen in relation to FLA a hypothesis that unless linguistic input is provided to the child prior to the Critical Period, the ability to acquire syntax will be permanently impaired. In SLA research however, the question of a CP takes on a much wider ambit, becoming a set of deterministic explanations for the mostly nonnative like end state for late L2 acquisition (Birdsong, 1999, p.2), which while useful to consider, often defy conclusive proof. Hence, there is, for example, conflicting research regarding the effect of loss of neural plasticity in the brain on the ability to develop a native-like accent; entrenched disagreement as to the degree of access to UG; speculation as to whether language acquisition circuitry is dismantled because of age or through lack of use; and ideas that adult L2 learning may be impeded either by the ongoing strengthening of neural connections to the L1, or due to the tendency of adults to attend to too many items in the linguistic input simultaneously (Birdsong, 1999, pp.2-9). After reviewing the evidence for a CP, Singleton and Ryan (2004, p.227) conclude "the notion that age effects are exclusively a matter of neurological predetermination, that they are associated with absolute, well-defined maturational limits and that they are particular to language looks less and less plausible". It can also be noted that under a Popperian criterion of falsifiability, reports of adult L2 learners achieving native-like proficiency (see e.g. Bongaerts, 1999; Ioup et al.,1994; Nikolov, 2000, cited in Han, 2003, p.5) are sufficient to suggest that the CPH cannot be used to predict failure for all adult L2 learners (Birdsong, 1999).

That is not to say that such age-related factors are not important to consider, simply that we should be cautious about overstating their impacts on the capacity to learn a language. Notwithstanding their conclusion above, Singleton and Ryan (2004) acknowledge that early exposure to L2 may be important simply for the amount of input a learner gains from early L2 learning. From a different angle, older adult learners may process information more slowly, and have problems with phonetic coding due to their decreased hearing acuity. Singleton (2005, p.277) also cites Krashen‘s claims that the “affective filter” is strengthened at puberty thanks to the onset of formal operations, so that “for the adult it rarely goes low enough to allow nativelike attainment”. Snow (2002) sees older learners as having both advantages and disadvantages that emerge from age-related variables, including “how much one already knows, how strategic one's learning can be, how embarrassed one is about making errors, etc”. In conclusion, it can be argued that while age-related changes to neurology, cognition, and affect cause the language learning process for adult learners to be quite different to that of children, there is little to suggest that age necessarily extinguishes any part of the capacity to learn another language.

3.9.2.3.3. Environmental Factors

A classroom learning environment is strikingly different to that of the environment for L1 acquisition which is characterized by constant immersion and “(c)ontextualized, appropriate, meaningful communication” (Brown, 2000, p.73). The L1 learner is usually surrounded by L1 speakers and is highly motivated to communicate due to the increased agency this brings her/him. “Impoverished” L1 input still compares favorably to the exposure of an L2 learner, hearing the L2 for only a few hours a week in a classroom. L1 exposure can be contrasted to L2 exposure not only in amount, but also in the nature of the language used. While the L1 learner has no externally imposed

syllabus (c.f. Corder's, 1967, suggestion that there may be an in-built syllabus), L2 classroom learners most commonly follow a syllabus that suggests that language is acquired in a linear and orderly fashion. Whereas parents will often give their children the opportunity to pursue topics and items of interest to them (Lightbown & Spada, 1999), L2 classroom learners are often constricted by the topics and structures of a textbook. Children learning their L1 focus on the 'truth value' of language rather than its grammatical forms (Brown, 2000, p.39), whereas language teachers often focus on grammatical accuracy at the expense of factual correctness (Willis, 2001, p.59). Hofstede (1986) found the classroom setting itself impedes the meaningful interaction so typical of an L1 learning context, contributing to the formation of individual attitudes and beliefs about language learning that can affect outcomes. Brown (2000, pp.64) offers a list of such affective considerations, including empathy, self-esteem, extroversion, inhibition, anxiety etc., with the observation that any affective factor can be relevant to L2 learning given "the pervasive nature of language". Acculturation, which Schumann (1986) sees as controlling the degree to which a learner acquires a target language, is also difficult to effect in a classroom setting.

From the point of view of the second language teacher, classroom environment is the variable over which there is most control, and issues of second language teaching and learning methodology become central to assisting learners in actualizing their language learning capacity. It is however difficult to resist the conclusion that, in the absence of learners also receiving L2 input and interacting using the L2 outside of the classroom, a high level of overall language proficiency is unlikely to be achieved.

3.9.2.3.4. Linguistic and Cultural Considerations

Every adult L2 learner has an array of linguistic and cultural knowledges and competences, and a linguistic and

cultural identity that may influence the acquisition of various aspects of the L2.

Brown (2000, p.68) suggests the L1 can be a facilitating factor, "used to bridge gaps that the adult learner cannot fill by generalization within the second language", as well as an interference. Ringbom (2006, p.1) points out that when learning a language closely related to the L1, "prior knowledge will be consistently useful, but if the languages are very distant, not much prior knowledge is relevant". However, great differences between L1 and L2 do not necessarily cause great difficulties or enable prediction of interference (Brown, 1990, pp. 212). L2 learners have also been shown to proceed through common phases of acquisition of certain syntactic items, regardless of their L1 (Krashen, 1982).

This has led to a view of L2 learning as a "process of creative construction of a system" (Brown, 2000, p.215) in which learners test hypotheses about the L2 from the many sources of knowledge available to them: knowledge of the L1, the L2, communicative functions, language, and life in general. This view sees learners as "creatively acting upon their linguistic environment" (Brown, 2000, p.215), by continually restructuring their individual system of language, their "interlanguage" (Selinker, 1972, cited in Han, 2004), in accordance with their learning experiences, a view reminiscent of constructivist theories of FLA.

In interlanguage terms, the study of the failure of a learner to gain mastery of an L2 in all its aspects is dealt with under the construct of "fossilization" (Han, 2004, p.4). The question then arises as to when, how, and why a particular learner fossilizes, which in turn leads back to explorations of the neurological, cognitive, developmental, environmental, linguistic, and affective components of capacity, and their intersection with individual attitudes and motivation.

3.9.2.3.5. Language Learner Ability to Use an L2

Two aspects of learner ability will be discussed in this category. The first aspect is learner ability to use an L2. Because language is generally referred to as a cognitive skill, particularly from a psycholinguistic perspective, the learner's ability to use a second language will be discussed in relation to aspects of the learner's cognitive structures. The second aspect is a biological ability. Age is consistently referred to as a biological factor having some influences in learning a second language. Some researchers, for example, have found that learners of a second language who start learning while they are young learn better and faster than those who start when they are much older.

The learner's linguistic competence in an L2 plays a central role in the learner's ability to use it in any performance, be it functionally or communicatively. Pienemann and Johnston (1987) argue that 'regardless of whether an investigation is functionally or formally oriented there is no way in which a description ofL2 development can avoid basing itself on a search for invariable patterns in learners' inter language, and these patterns must inevitably involve linguistic forms' (pp. 90-91). When a low performance in L2 is therefore identified, it is imperative to take notice of the knowledge the learner has of the language, for as Pienemann and Johnston (1987) again argue, 'language cannot be described adequately (if at all) without reference to its formal organisation' (p.91). The rest of the discussion in this section will focus on how L2 is acquired and the possible constraints on the process of acquisition.

The “Multi-Dimensional" model is a theory of L2 acquisition based firstly on a substantial body of research into the naturalistic acquisition of word-order rules of German as a second language, and secondly and more recently, on word-order and morphology of English as a second language. The model provides some explanations of how a second language is acquired

and the constraints involved during the process of acquisition. Although the model has been based on naturalistic acquisition of L2, its application in classroom-based research has proven its hypotheses thus indicating its usefulness and applicability in classroom-based research.

The Multi-dimensional model distinguishes two sets of linguistic features in learning of L2, 'developmental' and 'variational'. Developmental features are those which are constrained by speech processing mechanisms while variational features are those that are not so constrained. This distinction predicts that certain features (developmental) are acquired in sequence because of the mental operations involved in processing them, while other features (variational) are free. However, variational features are not completely random as their acquisition depends on certain psychosociological factors such as learner mental make-up and social situation (Johnston, 1987b).

The speech processing operations responsible for the acquisition of developmental features are, according to Pienemann and Johnston (1987), defined as the set of largely automatic operations involved in the production and comprehension of speech. These processing operations involve the learner's ability to manipulate syntactic elements in grammatical strings. Therefore, in terms of the different processing operations involved, the acquisition of developmental features fall into various developmental stages. These stages constitute a 11 classical implicational sequence" (Pienemann and Johnston, 1987) which means that mastery of rules at a particular stage entails mastery of the rules characterising earlier stages. In other words, learner ability to perform the operations in one stage entails already being able to perfonn those of the immediately preceding stage. With English as L2, for example, six developmental stages have been identified to be involved in the acquisition of grammatical rules (see Nunan (ed.), 1987, pp. 82-83) The acquisition of these developmental features is not

only sequential but also continuous. This means that the learner continues to work on the processing operations involved in one stage white stru1ing to acquire those involved in the next. With regard to the strict implicational sequence involved in acquiring L2, Pienemann and Johnston (1987), maintain that it is a natural sequence and because the cognitive operations which constitute the prerequisites for stages of development are universal, they apply equally to all learners, and are not affected by external factors such as the learning setting itself

With the variational linguistic features, the learner's orientation towards communicative effectiveness or towards correctness and target-language norms determines whether a variational feature is acquired or not. Ellis (1990) explains that learners who give primacy to the instrumental function of language are likely to make use of simplified and restricted forms. By doing that the amount of processing time spent on linguistic features is reduced and allocated to an emphasis on meaning-content. Other learners who give importance to the integrative language function (using language to identify with the native speakers of the host community) are more likely to pay attention to target-language norms. Variation between learners then is a result of the difference in the choice of linguistic code which they make.

In applying this model to classroom-based research, a number of hypotheses relating to the effect of instruction on L2 acquisition were proven correct. In an experimental study carried out by Pienemann (1984) investigating the use of 'inversion' by learners of German as L2 after a certain period of instruction, two of those hypotheses were confirmed to be true. The first is 'instruction will not enable learners to acquire any developmental feature out of sequence•, and the second is 'instruction will enable learners to acquire a developmental feature providing that the processing operations required to produce features that precede it

in the acquisitional sequence have already been mastered' (Ellis, 1990).

Another part of the same study aimed at examining the effects of instruction on the use of the copula as a variational feature. It was found that the frequency of copula omission in the five subjects who provided the data decreased considerably after instruction was given on the use of inversion. It was also found that the acquisition of this variable feature was independent of the acquisition of the development feature (inversion). Another hypothesis was therefore supported by these findings and that is, "instruction will help learners to acquire variational features" (Ellis, 1990:155).

One final hypothesis relating to the effect of instruction on L2 acquisition is that 'instruction directed at developmental features for which the learner is not ready may interfere with the natural process of acquisition' (Ellis, 1990: 155). From Pienemann's study, the results showed that for two of the learners the use of the 'adverb-proposing' rule in German language (stage 3) actually fell away as a result of the instruction on the use of inversion.

Based, however, on his study discussed above, Pienemann (1985) put forward the 'leachability hypothesis' which states that 'instruction can only promote language acquisition if the interlanguage is close to a point when the structure to be taught is acquired in the natural setting (so that sufficient processing requisites are developed)' (p.37). The hypothesis rules out the possibility that instruction can help the learner to beat the natural order of developmental features, but it does allow a clear role for instruction

From the discussion of the multi-dimensional model leading on to the leachability hypothesis, clear and useful insights are provided to help in explaining not only variation in the use of L2 in performance but also the lack of success in second language

learning. There are undoubtedly psychological constraints on the acquisition ofL2 particularly the developmental features which might affect the success of learning. Teaching of structures which learners are not ready to learn might also result in no learning.

Another model which can provide some explanations regarding the lack of success in the acquisition of linguistic competence in an L2 is the 'Universal Grammar Model' (UG) proposed by Chomsky. Like the multi-dimensional model, UG emphasizes the significant role of the learner's cognitive structures in the acquisition of L2, but instead of concentrating on the sequence of acquisition, UG elaborates the role of language input in the process of acquisition.

Initially, Universal Grammar (UG) framework starts from a well-defined theory of linguistic competence in Ll. For a number of years this theory focused primarily on describing what an ideal speaker-hearer knew about his or her first language. This underlying knowledge is now known as competence (Gass, 1989). More recently, this framework has been extended to look at such questions as: “How do children attain that knowledge? How do humans come to internalise such a complex set of information on the basis of limited input?”

Felix (1984) gives three reasons to show that on the basis of input alone, it is impossible for children to attain the complexities of adult grammars. First, some structures are so rare and marginal that it would not be possible for the child to obtain sufficient exposure to them. Second, the only way in which wrong hypotheses could be discarded would be if the input were to provide negative feedback, which in fact, it does not do. Finally, the rules of any grammar are highly abstract and so do not reflect the surface properties of the language.

It is on such deficiency that the underlying claim of 'Universal Grammar' model, proposed by Chomsky in the 1980s, has been based. What is needed for a child to learn the

grammar of his mother tongue, according to Chomsky, is a set of innate linguistic properties. This set is 'the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements or properties of all human languages (Chomsky, 1975, p.29). UG also provides a finite set of parameters and the values of those parameters are specifically determined by the grammars of individual languages. The experience one has with a particular language, therefore contributes to determine the value of a parameter.

These principles and parameters (UG) are, using Klein's words (1990), 'somehow hard-wired in the human brain as part of human genetic endowment' (p. 223). This language faculty or UG, according to Chomsky (1980), develops in the brain, triggered by appropriate external stimuli. Therefore, a central part of what we call 'learning' is :Jctually better understood as the growth of cognitive structures along an internally directed course under the triggering and potentially shaping effect of the environment.

The external stimuli necessary for triggering the UG is provided by the language input. Input is the evidence available to learners as they make hypotheses about correct and incorrect language forms while constructing knowledge of language. Such evidence can either be positive or negative. Positive evidence comes from the actual sentences that learners hear or read consisting of a limited set of well-formed utterances in a language. Although these sentences may only be a subset of the infinite number of possible sentences in a language, the infonnation in the sentences allows them to construct a grammar that fits that language. Negative evidence, on the other hand, is composed of information to a learner that his or her utterance is deviant vis-a-vis the norms of the language being learned. This can be in the form of an overt correction or an indirect indication of the deviance of an utterance (Gass, 1989). As argued by Felix (1984), the absence of negative evidence would make it an impossible task for a child to arrive at a well-formed adult grammar.

From the UG perspective, one could agree with Cook's (1991) statement that language is a part of the mind and therefore the individual mind is important in language learning. It is also reflected that language input plays a significant role in the process of language acquisition. These psychological constraints relate to the general ability of the learner. Some learners, for example, may have the cognitive abilities to learn but may perhaps not be provided well with adequate and appropriate language input, and therefore suffer in their learning of the language. Some learners, on the other hand, may obviously not have the abilities to learn as quickly as the others, and no matter how good the language inputs, they would still be constrained in their learning of the language.

A reflection of this has been identified in the case of the Tamil students particularly with Forms 5 and 6 examination results. Some students achieve outstanding grades in the other subjects that they take yet fail to pass English at the required grade. These students may have good general ability to learn but may perhaps be suffering from lack of'extemal factors' necessary for the effective learning of the language. Some students, on the other hand, achieve very good grades in English yet fail to pass their other subjects at the required grades. These students may still have good general ability to learn or good aptitude for language learning but fail to concentrate on the learning of the other subjects. There are also some students who fail to score well at all in English as well as their other subjects. These students may perhaps be regarded as not having such good general ability for learning. In all these cases, one may perhaps be able to identify a significant contribution of the general ability of the learner for language learning.

When applying UG to second language learning, Gass (1989) states that a range of similar arguments have been put forward because of inadequacy of negative evidence. There is a need to assume that adult second language learners have access

to the same innate universal constraints (properties) as do young children. However, the differences between Ll and L2 learning raise the question as to whether L2 leamers still have access to the innate universal constraints as in L 1. Furthermore there is the question as to whether Ll affects the learning ofL2.

After citing some studies as examples, Cook (1991) argues, in response to the questions above, that L2 learners seem to start from their L1 setting rather than from scratch in their parameter-setting. Because this does not contradict the UG model, it can be said that L2 learners still have access to the system of principles and parameters via their Ll. Among the cited studies was White's comparative study (1986) of how English was learned by speakers of French (a non pro-drop language with compulsory subjects) and by speakers of Spanish (a pro-drop language with optional subjects). She found that Spanish learners of English initially assume that subjects are not needed while the French learners assume that they are, and that indicates that first language setting for the parameter was indeed carried over to the second.

A rather negative response to the question as to whether UG can still be applied to L2 learning is the Critical Period Hypothesis originally proposed by Lenneberg (1967) claiming that after a certain age the principles and parameters of the UG are no longer accessible to the Ieamer. There are a1so some who, considering the role of negative evidence in L2 learning and implications for innate universal structures, argue that it is far from clear what the role of negative input is in second language acquisition. For one, there may be more negative input than we are aware of or perhaps it may be too confining to operationalise negative evidence in terms of verbal behaviour only. Because of this, there are questions as to the internal mechanisms which might be needed to account for L2 learning (Bley-Vroman, 1989; Varonis and Gas~ 1985; Pica, 1987, 1988; Fiksdal, 1986, 1988,1989).

The fact that second language learning is still possible to adult learners counteracts the negative argument against the availability of UG to second language learners. The explanations of UG provide us with insights to understand the constraints involved during the process of\earning a second language which might eventually lead to a lack of success. As shown by the multi-dimensional model, UG indicates that there are psychological constraints in L2 acquisition and language input plays a significant role too. These psychological constraints relate to the general ability of the learner. Some learners, for example, may have the cognitive abilities to learn but may perhaps not be provided well with adequate and appropriate language input and therefore suffer in their learning of the language. Some learners, on the other hand, may obviously not have the abilities to learn as quickly as the others, and, no matter how good the language input is, they would still be constrained in their learning of the language.

A reflection of this has been identified in the case of the Tamil students particularly with the Form 5 and 6 examination results. Some students achieved outstanding grades in the other subjects that they take yet fail to pass English at the required grade. These students may have good general ability to learn but may perhaps be suffering from a lack of' external factors' necessary for the effective learning of language. Some students, on the other hand, achieve very good grades in English yet fail to pass their other subjects at the required grades. These students may still have good general ability to learn or good aptitude for language learning but fail to concentrate on the learning of their other subjects. There are also some students who fail to score well at all in English as well as in their other subjects. These students may perhaps be regarded as not having such good general ability for learning. In all these cases, one may perhaps be able to identity a significant contribution of the general ability of the learner for language learning.

Perhaps it is worth noting at this point that, from observation and experience, many teachers of English as a second language in Tamil lack the use of a theoretical basis in their teaching of the language. Teaching should take into consideration the claims of language theories particularly those which have been researched and proven applicable. There is no doubt that the cognitive ability of the learner plays a very significant role in any form of learning including language learning. The claims and proven researches based on these two language theories (Multidimensional model and Universal Grammar) provide useful insights as to how the cognitive makeup of the learner responds well when the language structures are presented in a specific sequential order and when the right kind of input is provided. There is a need for teachers of English as a second language in Tonga to be aware of these theoretical guidelines and apply them where necessary in the hope of improving language learning in the country.

3.9.2.3.6. Learners' Knowledge of L1

Because second language learners have already acquired a linguistic system, that is their first language (L I), the role L 1 plays in the acquisition or learning of a second language no doubt contributes to achievement in L2 learning. Whether these Ll contributions are favourable or unfavourable is a question which has created such interest that it makes Ll and its role in L2 learning a considerable part of SLA research.

Until Chomsky published "Syntactic Structures" in 1957, the field of second language learning was dominated by the ideas of Behaviourist learning theory, which emphasised learning through habit-formation by means of imitation, reinforcement, and repetition of behaviour. Besides explaining SLA as habit-formation, the theory provided a theoretical account of how the learner's Ll intruded into the process of learning a second language.

According to the behaviourist learning theory, old habits get in the way of new habits. In second language, acquisition therefore, 'the grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind as the first language interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second' (Bright and McGregor, 1970:236). In cases where the structures of the learner's Ll and L2 are the same, it was assumed that the learning ofL2 is facilitated because all the learner has to do is to transfer L 1 habits. This is referred to as 'positive transfer'. However, when the structures of learners' LI and L2 are different, 'negative transfer' or interference takes place which means that L I habits hinder or interfere with L2 learning thus resulting in learning difficulties and errors. In behaviourist accounts of SLA, therefore, all errors are caused by L 1 interference and they are taken to be signs of non-learning, they are undesirable and must be avoided at all costs. With regard to this, "Contrastive Analysis" has been employed as a means of attempting to predict areas of potential errors by comparing the learner's L I with the target language so as to identify the differences between them.

The behaviourist ideas, were soon questioned and put to test by researchers in the early 1970s. Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974) studied the errors made by Spanish speakers learning English as L2 and found that only 3% could be classified as 'interference' errors, 85% were 'developmental', and 12% were 'unique' errors. On that basis, Dulay and Burt argued that learners do not organize L2 on the basis of transfer or comparison with L1 but rely on their ability to construct L2 as an independent system. These early empirica1 data studies refuted the claims of contrastive analysis and in more recent years, the role of LI in SLA has been reappraised. Ellis (1986) refers to two forms in this reappraisal. On one hand, the contribution ofLl was recast in a more cognitive framework, and this has been evidenced by the claim ofUG stating that second language learners use their L I for parameter-setting in their learning of an L2 (Cook,1991). On the other hand, the nature of language transfer was re-examined so

as to identify specific conditions under which interference takes place and the Ll knowledge is utilised.

The re-examination of LI transfer and the utilisation of LI in the learning of L2 was researched in the 1970s and early 1980s particularly in the bilingual immersion programs and the bilingual programs in Canada and in the U.S.: the results indicated that Ll does enhance the learning ofL2.

Cummins (1988) refers to the evaluations of various bilingual programs which reveal these results. The San Diego Spanish-English Language Immersion Program (1975) involved about 60% Spanish L1 and 40% English L1 students with the instruction predominantly in Spanish from preschool to the end grade 3 and after which half the time was spent through the medium of each language. Twenty minutes of English instruction was included at the preschool level, 30 minutes at grades K-1, and 60 minutes at grades 2-3. The findings of the evaluation showed that in the early stages, students were found to perform somewhat below grade norms in English academic skills, but by grade 6 they were performing above grade norms in both English and Spanish. Maths achievement also tended to be above grade norms. Legaretta (1979) compared the effectiveness of three bilingual programs with two types of English-only programs, and found that the three bilingual treatments were significantly superior to the two English-only treatments in developing English language skills. The Milingimbi Aboriginal Program involved Australian Aboriginal students who had been educated bilingually (spending roughly half the time in L1 medium instruction from kindergarten to grade 6). These students were compared in grades 4-6 with the previous cohort of grades 4-6 students of the same school who had received monolingual English instruction. It was found that students who had been educated bilingually were not only learning to read and write in their own language and furthering their knowledge of their own culture but they were also achieving better academic results

in oral English, reading, English composition and mathematics (Gale, McClay, Christie, and Harris, 1981).

The empirical research referred to above consistently support two theoretical generalisations which view the transfer of LI as helping the learning of L2. The first generalisation is 'Common Underlying Proficiency' which states that 'to the extent that instruction in Lx is effective in promoting proficiency in Lx, transfer of this proficiency to Ly will occur provided there is adequate exposure to Ly (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn Ly' (Cummins, 1981 :29). This means that the instruction when learning L1 i' not just developing L I skills but also of a deeper conceptual and linguistic proficiency which is strongly related to the development ofL2 and general academic skills. What is therefore learned in L I is transferable to L2.

The second generalisation is to do with the idea of'Sufficient Comprehensible Input' which suggests that the acquisition ofL2 depends not just on exposure to L2 but also on access to L2 input that is modified in various ways to make it comprehensible. This generalisation is supported by other second language theorists (Krashen, 1982; Long, 1983; Schachter, 1983; Wong Fillmore, 1983a). One important link between these two principles is that the knowledge acquired in one language plays a major role in making input in the other language comprehensible (Cummins, 1981; Krashen, 1981).

In the secondary schools in Tonga, except Tonga Side School, Tongan is used as the medium of instruction from class 1 to 3. Children are also taught to read and write in Tamil in their early years at primary level. All this is done in the hope that these children can transfer their proficiency in Tamil into their learning of English, thus speeding their learning process.

3.9.2.3.7. Attitude and Motivation

Ellis (1985) observes that there has been no general agreement on definitions of motivation and attitudes or of their relation to one another in SLA. For example, Schumann (1978) identifies “attitudes” as a social factor on a par with variables such as "size of learning group”, and “motivation" as an affective factor alongside cultural shock. Gardner and Lambert (1972) define "motivation" in terms of the L2 learner's overall goal and orientation, and "attitude" as the persistence shown by the learner in striving for a goal. Gardner (1979) attempts to link attitudes to motivation by saying that attitudes support the learner's overall orientation. In Brown's (1981) distinction of" attitudes" and "motivation", he identifies three types of motivation: 'global motivation' consisting of a general orientation to the goal of learning a L2; "situational motivation" which varies according to the situation in which learning takes place; “task motivation” which is motivation for performing particular learning tasks. Brown uses "attitudes" to refer to the set of beliefs that the learner holds towards members of the target language group. This lack of agreement reflects the distract nature of these concepts thus making the task of measuring them a difficult one.

The role of attitudes and motivation in second language learning has, however, been predominantly researched from a social-psychological framework which links motivation with, firstly, attitudes toward the community of speakers of the target language, secondly, with an interest in interacting with such speakers, and thirdly, with some degree of self-identification with the target language community (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). The most extensive research on attitudes and motivation in relation to L2 learning within this framework has been conducted by Gardner and Lambert and their associates in Canada. Other approaches to motivation in relation to second language learning from the social-psychological framework include the Speech

Accommodation Theory (Giles & Byroe, 1982; Beebe, 1988), Acculturation Model (Schumann, 1975, 1978a, 1978b, 1986), and Krashen' s Monitor Model of SLA (Krashen, I 981, 1982, 1985). Since they have not been as influential in the study of motivation and attitudes in SLA, they are not discussed in detail here.

Gardner & Lambert (1959) first made the distinction between 'integrative motivation', which is identified with positive attitudes toward the target language group and the potential for integrating into that group, and 'instrumental motivation', which refers to more functional reasons for learning a language such as to get a better job or a promotion, or to pass a required examination. In 1972 they published the results of a more than ten-year long research program on English speakers learning French in Canada. In this study, they established that success or failure in learning French in Canada was associated with whether students wanted to become part of French culture, as opposed to learning French for only instrumental reasons. This integrative instrumental duality, with integrative motivation being held to be a superior support for language learning, soon became widely accepted and many subsequent studies confirmed the validity of Gardner and Lambert's theory (Svanes, 1987; others are already mentioned above). Some studies, however, have come up with contradictory results (Lukmani, 1972; Cooper & Fishman, 1977; Pierson, Fu, & Lee, 1980; Oller, 1981).

Both 'integrative' and 'instrumental' motivations can be found among the Tamil learners of English as a second language, particularly those at secondary schools.

Gardner continued, despite the controversial results, to develop this model of motivation in second language learning. His Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB, Gardner et al., 1979; Gardner, 1985) stimulated numerous studies and his attempts to synthesise the results has led into a revised model that

he (Gardner) now calls the 'socioeducational model' (Gardner, 1979, 1980, 1985, 1988). Gardner (1985) points out that language learning is different from all the other school subjects because in language courses individual learners are required to incorporate elements from another culture. Consequently, reactions to the other culture become important considerations thus making attitudes specially relevant to language learning.

Gardner identifies two types of attitudes: attitudes to the people who speak the target language; and attitudes to the practical use to which the learner assumes he or she can put the language being learned (Spolsky, 1989). Attitudes, according to Gardner, do not have direct influence on learning, but they lead to motivation which does. Gardner views motivation as a complex construct for it 'involves four aspects, a goal, effortful behaviour, a desire to attain the goal and favourable attitudes towards the activity in question (1985:50).

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) argue that the socio-educational model can be summarised in terms of five hypotheses:

1. The integrative motive hypothesis: an integrative motive will be positively associated with SL achievement.
2. The cultural belief hypothesis: cultural beliefs influence the development of the integrative motive and the degree to which integrativeness and achievement are related.
3. The active learner hypothesis: integratively motivated learners are successful because they are active learners.
4. The causality hypothesis: integrative motivation is a cause; SL achievement, the effect.
5. The two-process hypothesis: aptitude and integrative motivation are independent factors in second language learning (pp. 472-473).

The empirical studies supporting these hypotheses are again controversial. With regard to the integrative motive hypothesis, contradictory results have emerged from studies in different contexts. In a summary of various studies testing the model, Au (1988) indicates that the results include every possible relationship between various measures of integrative motivation and measures of proficiency: positive, negative, nil and ambiguous. Clement & Kruidenier (1983), Hidalgo (1986) found no support of a general integrative motivation in their studies. In response to these criticisms, Gardner (1988) acknowledges the relatively unstable results, yet continues to maintain that in most cases there are significant correlations between at least some aspects of the integrative motive and some aspects of second language proficiency. He acknowledges, however, that integrative motivation is not the only factor involved in second language acquisition, and it does not account for all the variance in second language achievement. Currently, he does not claim that integrative motivation is superior to instrumental motivation, but simply that those who are integratively motivated will probably be more successful in second language learning than those who are not so motivated.

With regard to his causality hypothesis, numerous researchers have suggested that achievement might actually be the cause instead of the effect of attitude, that is, successful second language learners might acquire positive attitudes toward both language and the target language community as a result of doing well in their learning of the language (Savignon, 1972; Backman, 1976; Hennann, 1980; Strong, l984). In response, Gardner insists that there is nv support in literature for the notion that achievement influences the nature and amount of attitude change (1985).

This may be true in the case of the Tongan learners of English as a second language. Some students may be well motivated in English language learning and may develop

positive attitudes to native speakers of English because of their high achievement in English language learning.

In as far as the treatment of motivation in second language learning from the social-psychological framework, so far alluded to, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) point out something that is lacking. "In second language acquisition theory, motivation is typically grouped together with various aspects of personality and emotion as miscellaneous 'affective' factors that may play a role in acquisition. Current SL discussion on this topic lacks validity in that it is not well-grounded in the real world domain of the Sl classroom, nor it is well-connected to other related educational research" (1991 :470). When teachers say that a student is motivated, they are not usually concerned with the student's reason for studying, but are observing that the student does productively engage in learning tasks and sustains that engagement without the need for continual encouragement or direction. It is this teacher-validated use of the term motivation, according to Crookes and Schmidt that has not been adopted (but should be adopted) by second language investigators.

3.9.2.3.8. Learning Opportunities

Spolsky (1989) argued that "whatever the language learner brings to the task, whether innate ability, a language acquisition device, attitudes, previous knowledge, and experiences of languages and language learning, the outcome of language learning depends in larger measure on the amount and kind of exposure to the target language." (p. 166).

The amount and kind of exposure to the target language are considered important because they provide opportunities for the language learner to successfully perform the tasks essentially involved in learning a second language. Klein (1986) claimed that the second language learner has four essential tasks to perform in second language learning: "first, he or she must successfully

analyse the speech input he or she hears into appropriate units. Second, he or she must learn how to synthesise these minimal units into larger units. Third, he or she must team how utterances are embedded in context (including of course non-linguistic context). Finally, he or she must learn to match his or her own present command of a language with the target aimed at" (Spolsky, 1989:166-167). Spolsky (1989) pointed out two other tasks which Klein seemed to have left unstated yet involved in all kinds of learning. The first of these is the remembering of the newly learned items, and the second is the practice of the newly learned items to help the development of fluency and automaticity. In his general theory for second language learning, Spolsky restated all these six task elements as conditions which must be met in order for second language learning to take place. That is learners must be provided with opportunities so that they can perform these tasks of language learning.

There are two kinds of exposure commonly referred to in second language learning literature. Although they are distinct in many aspects, they both provide opportunities for the language learner to carry out the various tasks involved in learning a second language. The "natural language learning" is a situation where the language learner picks up a second language in the environment in which it is spoken from others speaking with the purpose of using it to communicate. The "formal or classroom learning" is the learning of language in a situation where only one person (the teacher) has command of it and the teacher controls the exposure so it will lead to learning.

Spolsky (1989) outlined sets of contrasting conditions between these two learning situations. As the goal for natural language learning is communication, the learner is under pressure to utilize his entire language potential in order to communicate successfully. This provides a necessary kind of practice. Negotiation of meaning between the non-native speakers and the native speakers provides a very valuable form of practice. In

the formal situation, the goal is learning so the tasks presented to the learner is smaller making it easier for the learner to analyse, synthesise, and match thus giving time for memory and opportunity for sufficient practice.

Many speakers in the natural environment are fluent and native so the learner is consequently exposed to a variety of forms and styles with which he or she can match his or her own knowledge. The one fluent model of the teacher in the classroom provides the learner with time to get used to one style at a time ru.1d also there is no competition from other speakers better than the learners to make them feel inadequate.

In a unique language situation, however, there is evidently a Jack of fluency and competence of teachers, especially primary teachers, and therefore they are unable to provide native-like forms and styles of English language for students to model. This presents a very serious problem.

The natural environment provides contextual clues for understanding language in use and also opportunities to see the rules in language use in physical and social contexts. The controlled circumstances in the classroom make it possible to hear better and to concentrate more.

From the sets of distinctive conditions discussed above, it appears that learning a second language through formal instruction is more limited and constrained especially in the amount of exposure it provides for the language learners to carry out the tasks involved in learning a second language.

3.10. Conclusion

The question of language learning capacity in both FLA and SLA is complex. The multifarious nature of language itself necessarily leads to different interpretations of the idea of language learning capacity. This essay has argued for a broad and functional view of language, whereby the child relies not

only on innate structures in the brain, but also on input from, and interaction with, people in the child's environment, in order to develop various language skills and competences. This process of FLA is necessarily unique according to the age and developmental state of the child, the amount and quality of linguistic input and interaction provided within the child's environment, and the relatively unformed state of the child's linguistic and conceptual systems. Therefore it cannot be expected that second language acquisition will proceed in the same way and a narrow or monolithic construction of language learning capacity will be even less helpful than it is in FLA. In examining the capacity of adult learners to learn an L2 in a classroom setting, age, learning environment, and prior linguistic experience were used as the differentiating constants by which the language learning capacity of these L2 learners could be compared to child L1 learners. In reviewing some of the effects of these factors on different aspects of the capacity to learn a second language, it becomes apparent that such effects are complex, interconnected, and variable. Empirical evidence may show that the adult learner is less likely to reach the same level of ultimate attainment in the L2 as the child-turned-adult will in L1, however there is little other evidence to suggest an inevitable extinction of any part of the capacity of an adult learner to learn an L2. For language teachers, the question then becomes how to incorporate into our teaching practices our understanding of the way in which learning processes are impacted by factors relating to age, environment, and prior linguistic and cultural experience in order to better assist L2 learners.

From the above gone details, one can begin to see and appreciate that learning a second language is a very complex process. It also follows that teaching a second language is a very difficult task. The complexity of factors involved in the learning of a second language makes it even harder to account for why there is success or lack of success in learning a second

language. The present exposition reveals that not only are there factors which are 'internal' to the learner (cognitive and affective attributes), but there are factors that are 'external' to the learner (existing knowledge, exposure to the language, background and surrounding) where both contribute either to speed up or slow down the process of learning. The present presentation, therefore, provides not only the theoretical basis but guidelines (especially on factors to be investigated) upon which the design and methodology of this study have been based.

Chapter 4

Socio-cultural Dimension of Language Teaching and Learning

4.1. Introduction

Traditionally, language is viewed as a code. In this view, language is made up of words and a series of rules that connect words together. If language is only viewed in this way, language learning just involves learning vocabulary and the rules for constructing sentences. This understanding of language is, however, a very narrow one. It sees language as fixed and finite and does not explore the complexities involved in using language for communication

Language is more than just the code: it also involves social practices of interpreting and making meanings. The way we teach language reflects the way we understand language. What is learned in the language classroom, and what students can learn, results from the teacher's understandings of language. There is a fundamental relationship between language and culture. It is important to consider how language as code and language as social practice are balanced in the curriculum

Language is at the heart of language teaching and learning and teachers need to constantly reflect on what language is. This is because our understandings of language affect the ways we teach languages.

4.2. Language as Social Practice

An understanding of language as 'open, dynamic, energetic, constantly evolving and personal' (Shohamy, 2007:5) encompasses the rich complexities of communication. This expanded view of language also makes educational experience more engaging for students. Language is not a thing to be studied but a way of seeing, understanding and communicating about the world and each language user uses his or her language(s) differently to do this. People use language for purposeful communication and learning a new language involves learning how to use words, rules and knowledge about language and its use in order to communicate with speakers of the language. This understanding of language sees a language not simply as a body of knowledge to be learnt but as a social practice in which to participate (Kramsch, 1994). Language is something that people do in their daily lives and something they use to express, create and interpret meanings and to establish and maintain social and interpersonal relationships.

If language is a social practice of meaning-making and interpretation, then it is not enough for language learners just to know grammar and vocabulary. They also need to know how that language is used to create and represent meanings and how to communicate with others and to engage with the communication of others. This requires the development of awareness of the nature of language and its impact on the world (Svalberg, 2007).

Our understanding of language, as languages educators, becomes part of our professional stance and, as such, influences our curriculum, planning and classroom pedagogies. Teachers who view language simply as code make acquiring grammar and vocabulary the primary, if not the only, goal of language learning. Within such a limited approach, students do not begin to engage with language as a communicative reality but simply as an intellectual exercise or as a work requiring memorising.

A professional stance that understands language as a social practice requires students to engage in tasks in which they create and interpret meaning, and in which they communicate their own personal meanings and develop personal connections with the new language.

The understanding of language that is part of our stance also affects what happens in the classroom and the ways in which learners begin to understand the relationship between their own languages and the languages of their learning. If the language learning program focuses on the code, then it models a theory of language in which the relationship between two languages is simply a matter of code replacement, where the only difference is a difference in words. If the language pedagogies focus on the interpretation and creation of meaning, language is learned as a system of personal engagement with a new world, where learners necessarily engage with diversity at a personal level.

Within a professional stance that understands language as a social practice, teachers need to ensure that students are provided with opportunities to go beyond what they already know and to learn to engage with unplanned and unpredictable aspects of language. Learning language as a complex, personal communication system involves ongoing investigation of language as a dynamic system and of the way it works to create and convey meanings. This involves learners in analysis and in talking analytically about language. Kramsch (1993:264) notes that: 'talk about talk is what the classroom does best and yet this potential source of knowledge has not been sufficiently tapped, even in communicatively oriented classrooms'. The emphasis on ongoing investigation and analysis assumes that learners are involved in learning which promotes exploration and discovery rather than only being passive recipients of knowledge as it is transmitted to them by others. These learners require learning skills which will give them independence as users and analysers of language (Svalberg, 2007).

In developing a professional stance to language teaching, it is important to consider how language as code and language as social practice are balanced in the curriculum. In developing language capabilities, students need to develop their knowledge and understanding of the code and also to come to see language as a way of communicating between people. Both of these goals need to be present in language teaching and learning from the beginning.

4.3. Language, Culture and Learning

Culture can be seen as practices or as information. Culture plays a central role in the way meanings are interpreted. Cultures are characterised by variability and diversity. The intercultural is not the same as culture but is a process which goes beyond the idea of 'knowing a culture'. Culture is fundamentally related to language

The way in which we understand culture, just as the way we understand language, affects the way we teach culture in language learning. In developing our stance, there are two fundamentally connected issues to consider:

- what we understand culture to be
- how we understand the place of culture within language learning.

Understanding the nature of the relationship between language and culture is central to the process of learning another language. In actual language use, it is not the case that it is only the forms of language that convey meaning. It is language in its cultural context that creates meaning: creating and interpreting meaning is done within a cultural framework. In language learning classrooms, learners need to engage with the ways in which context affects what is communicated and how. Both the learner's culture and the culture in which meaning

is created or communicated have an influence on the ways in which possible meanings are understood. This context is not a single culture as both the target language and culture and the learner's own language and culture are simultaneously present and can be simultaneously engaged. Learning to communicate in an additional language involves developing an awareness of the ways in which culture interrelates with language whenever it is used (Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino, & Kohler, 2003).

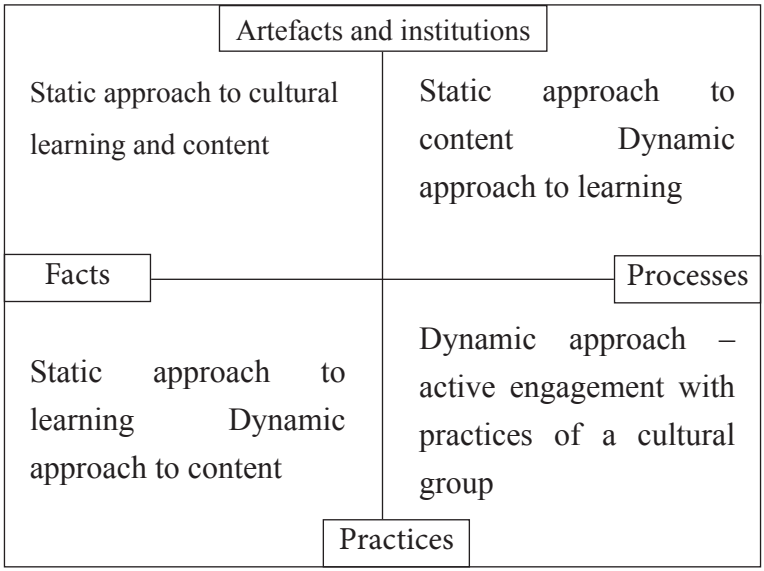
One way in which culture has often been understood is as a body of knowledge that people have about a particular society. This body of knowledge can be seen in various ways: as knowledge about cultural artefacts or works of art; as knowledge about places and institutions; as knowledge about events and symbols; or as knowledge about ways of living. It is also possible to consider this aspect of culture in terms of information and to teach the culture as if it were a set of the learnable rules which can be mastered by students. When translated into language teaching and learning, this knowledge-based view of culture often takes the form of teaching information about another country, its people, its institutions, and so on. Culture is not, however, simply a body of knowledge but rather a framework in which people live their lives and communicate shared meanings with each other.

Teaching culture has been subject of discussions among linguists and language teachers for many years. Some teachers believe that teaching culture will enable language learners to be engaged authentically with the culture of a particular native-speaking community (Bright, 1968). After we understand the significance of teaching culture, we need to perceive the importance of socio-cultural factors and their application in teaching culture since they play an incredibly important role in learning and using a new language better and easier and in the other hand when these factors are not applied in teaching a new language negative consequences like disability in understanding very culture-dependent lessons have been reported. That is the

reason why many language learners complain about very vague and ambiguous situations in native speakers' communications in the native environment (Brown, 2007). Today, the language teaching programs across the globe are attempting to incorporate these ideas into their lesson planning programs and training programs for their non-native language teachers. They hope to enable students to better their understanding of the new language and facilitate teachers' performance. It should be noted, however, working on socio-cultural competence in language classes doesn't mean asking students to abandon their culture and adopt another identity, but it means offering pieces of information about underlying cultural and social factors which affect discourse and communication instead. This triggers learners' motivation for receiving the new language identity (Williams, 2002). In this study we try answer this question; how teaching culture in language classes boosts socio-cultural competence and from there whole the teaching process becomes more influential by increasing learners' efficiency and saving the instruction time?

4.3.1. Static and Dynamic Approaches to Culture

In thinking about how to teach culture in the language classroom, it is useful to consider how the ways in which culture is presented can be categorised. The diagram below (adapted from Liddicoat, 2005) is one way of thinking this through.


Artefacts and institutions
Static approach to cultural learning and content
Static approach to content Dynamic approach to learning
Facts
Processes
Static approach to learning Dynamic approach to content
Dynamic approach – active engagement with practices of a cultural group
Practices

One dimension is the axis of culture as facts or as processes: that is, whether culture is seen as a static body of information about characteristics of a society or as a dynamic system through which a society constructs, represents, enacts and understands itself. The second axis represents the way in which culture is conceived in terms of educational content. It makes a distinction between artefacts and institutions and practices: that is, whether culture is seen in terms of the things produced by a society or as the things said and done by members of a society.

The most static way to approach the teaching of a culture typically emphasises artefacts, institutions and factual knowledge. Both the approach to culture learning and the content itself are static. The lower left quadrant adopts a static approach to the nature of learning, but a more dynamic approach to the content, whereas the top right quadrant is static in terms of its content, but dynamic in terms of its approach to learning (eg as in activities in which learners engaged with cultural artefacts in a hands on way). The most dynamic approach to culture is

represented by the lower right hand quadrant, which sees learners actively engage with the practices of a cultural group.

4.3.2. The Intercultural Dimension

Knowledge of cultures is important for facilitating communication with people. Therefore learners of languages need to learn about and understand cultures. Understanding culture as practices with which people engage becomes centrally important. This means that in the language classroom it is not just a question of learners developing knowledge about another culture but of learners coming to understand themselves in relation to some other culture. This is why there is a contemporary emphasis on 'intercultural'. Learning to be intercultural involves much more than just knowing about another culture: it involves learning to understand how one's own culture shapes perceptions of oneself, of the world, and of our relationship with others. Learners need to become familiar with how they can personally engage with linguistic and cultural diversity.

There is another way to think about culture in language teaching: the distinction between a cultural perspective and an intercultural perspective (Liddicoat, 2005). This 'cultural' pole implies the development of knowledge about culture which remains external to the learner and is not intended to confront or transform the learner's existing identity, practices, values, attitudes, beliefs and worldview. The 'intercultural' pole implies the transformational engagement of the learner in the act of learning.

The goal of learning is to decentre learners from their own culture-based assumptions and to develop an intercultural identity as a result of an engagement with an additional culture. Here the borders between self and other are explored, problematised and redrawn.

Taking an intercultural perspective in language teaching and learning involves more than developing knowledge of other people and places. It means learning that all human beings are shaped by their cultures and that communicating across cultures involves accepting both one's own culturally conditioned nature and that of others and the ways in which these are at play in communication. Learning another language can be like placing a mirror up to one's own culture and one's own assumptions about how communication happens, what particular messages mean and what assumptions one makes in one's daily life. Effective intercultural learning therefore occurs as the student engages in the relationships between the cultures that are at play in the language classroom. Such learning involves much more than just developing knowledge about some other culture and its language.

The intercultural framework proposed here, then, consists of three intersecting dimensions for understanding approaches to the teaching of culture in language learning:

- the nature of content: artefact-practice
- the nature of learning: fact-process
- the nature of the educational effect: cultural-intercultural.

In learning about culture in the language classroom, we need to draw on our own experiences of language and culture as they are encountered when trying to create and interpret meanings. The ability to learn beyond the classroom is probably more important than any particular information that students may learn about another culture during their schooling. This is because it is impossible to teach all of any culture because cultures are variable and diverse. As languages educators, we know that what we can teach in the classroom is inevitably only a partial picture of

a language and culture. By acknowledging that limitation in our own teaching, we are less likely to develop stereotypical views of the cultures we are teaching about. Learning how to learn about culture means that, as people engage with new aspects of culture, they develop their knowledge and awareness and find ways of acting according to their new learning.

One way of developing intercultural capabilities is through an interconnected set of activities involving:

- noticing cultural similarities and differences as they are made evident through language
- comparing what one has noticed about another language and culture with what one already knows about other languages and cultures
- reflecting on what one's experience of linguistic and cultural diversity means for oneself: how one reacts to diversity, how one thinks about diversity, how one feels about diversity and how one will find ways of engaging constructively with diversity
- interacting on the basis of one's learning and experiences of diversity in order to create personal meanings about one's experiences, communicate those meanings, explore those meanings and reshape them in response to others.

A dynamic relationship between language and culture is always at play. It is through exploration of the interactions of language and culture that this awareness and the ability to act on it can be developed.

4.4. Cultural Aspect of Second Language Learning and Teaching

4.4.1. The relationship between language and culture

There has been a heated discussion about the complex role of culture in language learning: Is it possible for one to learn a language without learning about its cultural aspects? Is it possible to "teach" culture at all? If a teacher believes in "teaching" culture in tandem with the language, what does the teacher mean by "culture"? Does teaching culture simply mean introducing some elements of surface culture such as customs, food or festivals, or does it mean raising the awareness of students towards the deeper culture such as beliefs, values and/or norms which are manifested in people's behaviors? Furthermore, which "cultures" should be chosen to be representative of the culture for the language? The list of questions seems to be endless and the dilemma involved insolvable.

However, it seems that people agree to at least one fundamental premise: Culture is not only inseparably related to language, but also plays an important role throughout the process of language teaching and learning. The question is not whether or not to teach culture, but, rather, what kind of teaching can promote students' understanding of the nature of the language, communication and human relations. Tucker and Lambert (1973) stated that the ability to communicate fully in a second language depends on the degree of non-ethnocentrism of the learner. The successful learner must develop "an awareness of and sensitivity toward the values and traditions of the people whose language is being studied" (p.246).

The importance of an understanding of the "culture" in which the target language is spoken for students of a foreign language has become clear. Here, I have to come back to the

questions raised earlier; what do people mean by "culture"? In a foreign language classroom, when teachers talk about incorporating culture into language teaching, it often means simply introducing typical customs or traditions of the given society. For example, in a Japanese language class, a teacher may introduce some Japanese customs or social rules such as when you receive a present, do not open it in front of the giver but instead just put it aside, or they eat raw fish, and so on. These are, of course, part of Japanese culture, and may be useful to know when visiting a Japanese home. Yet, it does not explain the reasons or beliefs behind all these social behaviors to which one must be introduced in order to understand Japanese culture. Usually in this kind of instruction, differences or peculiarities tend to be emphasized and stereotypes created.

In the case of the English language, problems arise about which cultures to introduce. This is because English is no longer, and indeed may never have been the property of certain group of people. Moorjani and Field (1988) stated the difficulty of choosing a culture to teach as following:

The heterogeneity of these societies is in itself an enormous stumbling block in the teaching of culture, for it imposes upon us a choice that can only be made on ideological grounds: what culture do we teach, or, rather, whose culture do we hold up as a model? On a superficial level, one would think that, since we are almost without exception teaching an educated middle class linguistic repertory, we ought, logically, to select for cultural teaching the "prestige" culture that this form of language subtends. But this sort of simplification and idealization, while useful for the teaching of language, is certainly harmful when we are concerned with culture, for it reduces the target world to a one-dimensional caricature ... [W]e need to help our students understand the fact that none of our target cultures is homogeneous, that each exhibits a constant tension between the culture of the prestigious and the powerful and that of minorities

and the dispossessed. The most effective way of teaching culture, ... may be a kind of triangulation by which American culture are allowed to interact with and reflect off both a "prestige" form of the target culture and an alternate culture within the target society (pp.27-28).

If this is the case, as language teachers we might at least be able to make students aware of their own culture. As Hall (1978) stated, in order to understand the other's culture, "one must transcend one's own culture [which] can be done only by making explicit the rules by which it operates" (p.55).

Another problem with teaching language from a cultural perspective is that there is a clear dichotomy between native and non-native speakers of the language. One must decide how much, if at all, the non-native speakers should conform to the native speakers norm of language use or patterns of communication (Bentahila & Davies, 1989). It is especially important to bear this in mind given the reality of English as an international language.

It is recognized that second or foreign language speakers of English have already acquired communicative competence in their first language and culture. Sometimes this competence is viewed in a negative light since it interferes with the person's competence by transferring the first language competence to English and causes misunderstandings. Lado (1957) discussed the comparison of languages and cultures for the purpose of identifying and describing problems that second-language learners will encounter. His fundamental assumption is that individuals transfer forms and meanings, and the distribution of these, from their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture. As a consequence, there occurs miscommunication between people with different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. According to this viewpoint, miscommunication is minimized by maximizing conformity. To know English, you must be able to communicate in the language in a manner that native speakers will

accept as their own (ibid., 1957). This view completely excludes the validity of the nonnative speaker's cultural background. Suppressing one's own cultural identity may not appear to be so traumatic, yet because the values of the English language clash with the values of one's own native language, the nonnative speaker may feel compromised.

4.4.2. Understanding Language Learning

Second language acquisition and learning theories need to account for language learning by learners from diverse life-worlds, learning with diverse needs, interests, motivations and desires in diverse contexts. Intercultural language teaching and learning focuses on the relationship between language, culture and learning. Using languages, hence learning languages, is: an intrapersonal and interpersonal process of meaning-making, interactional, developmental/dynamic, interpretive, imaginative and creative

4.4.3. Second Language Learning

Theories that have been developed to account for second language learning, or acquisition, are closely related to those discussed above as general learning theories.

A behaviourist approach to second language learning focuses on imitation, practice, encouragement and habit formation. Learning a second language necessarily involves comparison with the learner's first language, but the latter is generally perceived as causing 'interference' in the learning of additional one(s). This approach is seen now to offer an insufficient explanation of the complexity of language learning.

The linguist Noam Chomsky (1957) provided a major critique of behaviourism and its view of second language learning as imitation and habit formation. He developed a theory of first

language learning that suggests that language learning is an innate capacity – that children are programmed to acquire language thanks to their in-built knowledge of a Universal Grammar. He called this knowledge 'competence', to distinguish it from what might actually be said on a particular occasion.

For Chomsky, this abstract knowledge of language consists of a limited set of rules that enabled an infinite number of sentences to be constructed. While he did not specifically address second language learning, his theory has been applied to it.

With regard to teaching methodology, behaviourism can be linked to grammar/translation methods that tend to focus on the parts of grammatical knowledge with less attention on how these parts might be brought together in communication. The audiovisual and audio-lingual approaches were based on stimulus-response psychology – that is, training students through practising patterns to form 'habits'.

One of the most influential of the innatist theories (ie theories that argue that language is innate, is that of Stephen Krashen and it is this theory that influenced communicative language teaching (for more information, see Lightblown & Spada, 1999, Chapter 2).

Within cognitive theories of second language acquisition, learning involves building up the knowledge system or architecture which over time and through practice becomes automatically accessible in reception and production. Some theorists within the cognitivist tradition have argued that interaction is essential for language learning to take place, with the modification of input, by teachers for example, to render it comprehensible to the learner (see Long, 1983).

The sociocultural perspective on second language learning, based on the work of Vygotsky (1978), highlights that all learning, including language learning, is based on social interaction (see

Lantolf, 2000) with more proficient others, on an interpersonal and intrapersonal plane as described above.

Through the concept of the zone of proximal development, it highlights that language learning is developmental. The characteristic of 'prior knowledge' is very important. It recognises that new learning is built on prior learning – that is, the ideas and concepts that students bring to learning. Teachers work with these preconceptions in order to facilitate learning.

The characteristic of 'metacognition', or awareness about how we learn, is integral to learning. Students need to understand how they learn. They need to continuously reflect on their learning and develop self-awareness of themselves as learners. There is a strong connection between learning and identity: learners need to negotiate constantly who they are, and how they can be/ should be/ would like to be in the language and culture they are learning.

4.4.4. The Role of Language

The role of language in learning cannot be over-emphasised. Language is the prime resource teachers have and use for mediating learning. When learning languages, then, teachers and students are working with language simultaneously as an object of study and as a medium for learning. In teaching languages, the target language is not simply a new code – new labels for the same concepts; rather, effectively taught, the new language and culture being learned offer the opportunity for learning new concepts and new ways of understanding the world.

While these theories of second language learning provide insights on aspects of second language learning, there is no comprehensive or 'complete' theory that can guide the practices of teaching and learning. Nonetheless, this does not mean that 'anything goes'. Rather, it becomes necessary for teachers to become aware of and understand what they do and why,

by examining their own, often tacit, theories about learning in relation to insights from current and best theories, and by considering the implications of these for teaching. Both teachers and students need to develop a rich conception of what language and culture are and do, and how they interrelate to interpret and create meaning.

4.4.5. Intercultural Language Learning

The intercultural orientation to language learning is intended to give salience to: the fundamental integration of language, culture and learning in learning and using any language, and the reality of at least two languages being constantly at play in learning an additional language. Intercultural language learning can be considered through five principles: active construction, making connections, interaction, reflection and responsibility

A stance to languages teaching that has intercultural language learning at its heart involves developing with students an understanding of their own 'situatedness' in their own language and culture, and the recognition of the same in others. It also involves understanding the way in which this recognition influences the process of communication within their own language and culture, and across languages and cultures. Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino and Kohler describe it as follows.

Intercultural language learning involves developing with learners an understanding of their own language(s) and culture(s) in relation to an additional language and culture. It is a dialogue that allows for reaching a common ground for negotiation to take place, and where variable points of view are recognised, mediated, and accepted.

Learners engaged in intercultural language learning develop a reflective stance towards language and culture, both

specifically as instances of first, second, and additional languages and cultures, and generally as understandings of the variable ways in which language and culture exist in the world. (Liddicoat et al, 2003:46)

Through intercultural language learning, students engage with and learn to understand and interpret human communication and interaction in increasingly sophisticated ways. They do so both as participants in communication and as observers who notice, describe, analyse and interpret ideas, experiences and feelings shared when communicating with others. In doing so, they engage with interpreting their own and others' meanings, with each experience of participation and reflection leading to a greater awareness of self in relation to others. The ongoing interactive exchange of meanings, and the reflection on both the meanings exchanged and the process of interaction, are an integral part of life in our world. As such, intercultural language learning is best understood not as something to be added to teaching and learning but rather something that is integral to the interactions that already (and inevitably) takes place in the classroom and beyond.

4.4.6. Socio-cultural Aspect of Language Learning and Teaching

The sociocultural theory explains children's learning and development and allows one to better understand children's learning and the influence of both adults and peers on the learning process. From this perspective, children are seen as active participants in the learning process whose capacities are influenced by the culture of the environment in which they develop (Anning, Cullen, & Fleer, 2008).

The sociocultural theory, initially proposed by Vygotsky (1978, 1986, 1987) refers to the human learning processes in general, which includes language learning. Later researchers,

such as Lantolf, Donato, Thorne, Pavlenko, Swain and Lapkin and others (see Lantolf, 2000b), extended Vygotsky's theory to second language acquisition, and focused mainly on how second language acquisition can be explained through the sociocultural perspective, that is, how second language learners acquire language when they collaborate and interact with other speakers.

The core of sociocultural theory is that learning and cognitive development (which includes language as well) happen as a result of social interactions. It argues that "while human neurobiology is a necessary condition for higher order thinking, the most important forms of human cognitive activity develop through interaction within social and material environments" (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006a, p. 201). Such cultural and linguistic settings include family life, peer groups, schooling and organized sports activities. In other words, interactions with people and artefacts from the environment are essential in the development of thinking.

Sociocultural theory considers language as an important mediational tool in the development of higher mental processes of learners (Vygotsky, 1986). It helps the development of these processes since it enables the developing communicative and cognitive functions to move from 'the interpsychological' to 'the intrapsychological plane' (Vygotsky, 1987) that is, from the social to the personal level. This requires active engagement of children in social interactions with peers and adults (Lantolf, 2000a; Rogoff, 1990). As Pavlenko and Lantolf (2000) argue, children have agency and intentions which enable them to learn and construct their understandings through interaction with the environment.

Therefore, from the sociocultural perspective language is of interest not only for communication but for thought itself, in its functional sense. As Lightbown and Spada (2006) explain, sociocultural theory views speaking and thinking as "tightly

interwoven" (p. 47) people internalize what is being said in the communicative process (by them as well as by others) and through this activity they gain control over their mental processes, or in other words speaking mediates thinking.

The opportunity to use language as a means of making sense of experiences with others is a crucial step in learning to use language meaningfully, appropriately and effectively (Park, 2005). It enables the child to internalize the language and carries it into further performance. The value of imitation is also emphasized for children's language learning, arguing that internalization through imitation is not a matter of just miming and copying but entails an active, and frequently creative, reasoning process. This explains why roleplay and makebelief/ pretend play are so important for young children's development.

Swain and Lapkin (2002) argue that the production of language pushes learners to process language more deeply. The situations in which learners prepare to express themselves, before they start speaking or writing, demand paying much more attention to how thoughts are expressed linguistically than is the case in language comprehension activities. Thus, the authors advocate for more opportunities in which students would be able to engage in verbal expression. Swain (2000) maintains that in collaborative dialogues "language use and language learning can cooccur.

It is language use mediating language learning. It is cognitive activity and it is social activity" (p. 97). All this emphasizes the importance of active participation for language acquisition. The zone of proximal development (ZPD), together with mediation and internalisation, is another core concept of sociocultural theory. It is defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in

collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). In other words, a child may be able to complete more cognitively demanding tasks if s/he has the right support from an adult or a peer. ZPD is seen as a metaphorical site where a learner and an interlocutor coconstruct knowledge and the emphasis in ZPD is placed on development, coconstruction of knowledge among learners in interaction with interlocutors or in private speech (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). The assumption is that what a child was once able to achieve with the help of others, s/he will be able to achieve on his/her own in the future.

Play is a particularly important activity in Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of development. Through play, children create a zone of proximal development in collaboration with others, in which they perform beyond their current abilities since they have the support of others (Vygotsky, 1978, 1997). With regard to SLA, different researchers have repeatedly documented the occurrence of language play and recognized its importance in the process of acquisition for both children and adults.

4.4.7. Socio-cultural Factors Affecting Learning and Teaching of the Second Language

Here we will analyse some of the theories of language acquisition and how they relate to adult learners, in terms of when they were children learning a first language, and also adults in Further Education (FE) classes who are re-learning a language. It will also examine the link between childhood environment, cultural transmission and other social, personal and cultural factors which can affect the development and acquisition of language. Lastly, the effects of learning disabilities and difficulties, in particular dyslexia and hearing loss, are discussed and how they can impact upon an individual's literacy skills. There have been a number of proposed theories and scientific explanations of language acquisition. One of the earliest came

from Skinner (1957) who argued that children acquire language based on behaviourist reinforcement principles, where correct utterances are positively reinforced as the child realises the communicative value of words (Lemetyinen, 2012). For example, when a child says "up" and is picked up by its parent, the child is rewarded and this will increase language development. Additionally, Skinner proposed that as children grow, the parents will only positively reinforce and pay attention to recognisable phrases and sounds. This selective reinforcement, he argued, will ultimately lead to an elimination of incorrect or 'baby sounds', and the acquisition of correct sentences and grammar. It could be expected that, based on these theories, a child who receives little reinforcement (or opportunities to converse with and imitate others) will be impeded in their learning of language. Overall, Skinner's work indicates that the way adults speak and interact with children has an effect on their language development. Although this may be at least partially true, many critics have said it is far too simplistic and does not account for all the stages of language acquisition. For example, children (and adults) are not limited to the sentences they have heard and can produce an infinite number of original sentences. Also, children and adults develop grammatical knowledge which can sometimes be applied incorrectly e.g. 'soakened' or 'mans'. This is not imitation as adults generally speak using the correct past tense or plural form. Furthermore, the speed at which children acquire language is phenomenal and would be much slower if it depended on imitation and reinforcement alone (Ambridge & Lieven, 2011). Chomsky (1965) was a leading critic of Skinner and had an alternative theory - innateness. He stated that children have an innate, biological ability to acquire language and if they are exposed to language, the acquisition of it will occur naturally. Chomsky also proposed the idea of 'transformational grammar' - the grammar that transforms a sentence - where surface structures are words that are actually written and deep structure is the

underlying message or meaning of a sentence. Furthermore, Chomsky's idea of 'universal grammar' declared that children instinctively know how to combine nouns and verbs into meaningful phrases (Lemetyinen, 2012). The findings of Bard and Sachs (1977) and the child called 'Jim', however, appear to contradict this theory. Jim was the son of deaf parents but not deaf himself. They wanted him to speak normally, so they used very little sign language and instead exposed him to spoken language through television and radio. Jim's language development suffered immensely as a consequence, but with speech therapy he did improve rapidly. This is real-life evidence of the need for human interaction and communication. The social interactionist theory of Bruner (1983) and other theorists put more emphasis on the conversational aspects of the adult / infant relationship, but also drew on Skinner's reinforcement and imitation theory and Chomsky's 'transformational grammar' concept. The interactionists suggested turn-taking conversations between the adult and child would need to take place in order for the latter to develop language skills. These skills would be enhanced by the child desiring communication, relating such occurrences to their social setting and applying their grammatical awareness to new words and phrases. This approach to learning also argues that knowledge is actively constructed by the learner, not imposed on them, and that they form this new knowledge in conjunction with existing ideas they had originally (Taber, 2006). It is particularly relevant to the adult English lessons in FE, where learners can be any age from sixteen upwards and most possess long-standing literacy skills or beliefs which are often incorrect. Moreover, some researchers have reported benefits of exposure to a language in infancy or childhood when relearning it a later stage (Au, Knightly, Jun, & Oh, 2002). Additionally, Vygotsky's zone of proximal development perspective suggests that learning is a social process and that dialogue between the learner, teacher and peers plays a crucial role in learning (Cakir, 2008). This

perspective is central to all literacy classes; for example, part of the assessment criteria is a group discussion between learners. Furthermore, the dialogue between students increases the exchange of ideas when learning new material; this in turn will aid each learner's understanding of literacy skills. The social interaction and constructivist theory approach to language acquisition links closely with the personal, social and cultural factors which affect many adult learners in FE. When learners walk into an English class in an FE environment, they arrive with previous experiences of education and their attitudes towards it will already have been formed (Wallace, 2009). Changing what might be a mainly negative outlook of learning is a crucial part of the teacher's role, particularly early on in the academic year. To create a suitable environment for learning language and literacy skills, especially for those learners whose prior experience of learning has been chiefly negative, teachers will need to take into account a range of personal, social and cultural factors for each individual. Learners use literacy skills as part of their everyday lives, perhaps reading a newspaper or understanding a bus timetable, but often overlook the value of these skills and perceive traditional uses such as formal letters as more important (Mace, 2005). Teachers may need to demonstrate practical uses for the traditional language and literacy skills acquired in class, so that learners can make the connection to modern life e.g. formal letter (sent via email) applying for a job or writing a complaint letter. If the learner can see how this work fits with their everyday life their perception of learning may become more positive, which in turn could improve their motivation, attendance and confidence (Mace, 2005). Although learners may have low levels of literacy, they may have effective and established coping strategies to enable them to perform a variety of routine tasks e.g. asking a neighbour to read their mail. The tutor's role should be to inspire the learner to build on what they already know, but also to see that knowing how to do something themselves (and why they are

doing it) is far more beneficial. Other personal factors which could affect learners' acquisition and development of language skills include criminal behaviour (in the past or present), which may lead to an individual not being permitted to continue with an English course in FE. This situation may also have been replicated at school age through expulsion or repeated suspension, both of which would impede learning as they prevent the repetitive practice required to achieve proficient skills (Rice, 2004) and increase the likelihood of the individual using infrequent and incorrect terms of speech - often without realising (Yule, 1996). Additionally, the learner may have had long periods of truancy or absenteeism which would further inhibit an acquisition of language skills for the same reasons. Further personal factors which could present a barrier to learning include: sexual orientation, racism, religion, disability and poor physical or mental health (Isserlis, 2010). These factors might cause a learner to suffer from a severe lack of confidence amongst others, or prevent them from even starting a class to improve language skills. Adult learners may also have personal issues such as alcohol or drug dependence. They could be a victim of (or suffered in the past from) bullying, violence or trauma. As language learning demands control, connection, and meaning, adults experiencing effects of past or current trauma are particularly challenged (Isserlis, 2010). There is a broad research literature that reveals the link between having low literacy skills and economic and social status, with adults in this category being more likely to be unemployed, living on low incomes in socio-economically-excluded geographical areas (Brynner and Parsons, 2001). The impact of this research for FE tutors is that some of their learners, particularly those who are attending to improve low literacy skills and develop their language, will probably be experiencing some of these social barriers to learning. They might be unemployed, in poverty or have a lack of housing or food security. These social factors may cause a learner to lack

motivation, concentration or the confidence to believe they can improve their skills. Moreover, learners from a poorer geographical area may have fewer opportunities for learning language such as libraries with limited facilities or a lack of books and resources at home. They might also hold a lower (or alternative) expectation of language education; their priority could be economical survival and they see education solely as a tool to gain employment - not to improve and learn new literacy skills for personal growth or access to higher education, for example. This perception also links to culture and society; in certain social groups or families the regard for reading and writing delivered from an adult to a child may be one of indifference or, at worst, disdain. If an individual was brought up around this attitude in early childhood and experienced a lack of exposure to language and dialogue, they are not likely to achieve the same language proficiency when opportunities are presented to them later (Perfetti & Marron, 1998). This lack of language proficiency, together with being unacquainted with the need for different dialects in certain social situations, can lead some learners to use inappropriate words, tone or body language - often without being aware of it. There may also be other cultural factors affecting a learner's acquisition of language such as them having parents who speak English as a second language, a traveller culture where learning at school is restricted to early teens, or the requirement to look after siblings or other relatives. In addition to these possible social and cultural factors, many learners in FE English classes will have developed coping mechanisms to overcome the problems they encounter with language in their everyday lives e.g. avoiding reading mail by asking neighbours or relatives to help them. This may be due to limited opportunities for learning to read in childhood, but could also be due to a learning disability or difficulty such as dyslexia (Thomas, 2006). Dyslexia has several different definitions and learners, after completing a diagnostic assessment, are placed on

a continuum of severity (Rice, 2004). Grizzle and Simms (2005) suggested dyslexia is a broad term used to describe a learning disability where the learner's reading ability and phonological decoding skills are impaired. The critical difficulty in dyslexia lies in the decoding at the single-word level rather than in comprehending passages of text (Snowling, 1991 cited in Rice, 2004). Therefore, a dyslexic learner might excel at developing their skim reading skills or explaining the overall meaning or intention of a piece of text, but struggle to compose their own piece of writing in response to a particular scenario or task. The implication of this in an FE setting is that they may be working at a much lower level for the writing element of functional skills, compared to the reading and speaking and listening components. This could prevent them from achieving full functional skills qualifications and as a consequence they may not be allowed to continue to develop language skills, as they will not generate funding. According to recent research, dyslexia is a complex neurological condition and can affect other areas such as motor skills, oral language skills and organisational skills (Ott, 2005). Learners can struggle to acquire the phonemic awareness and relationship of letters to sounds, leading to an inability to spell easy words (Rice, 2004). Examples of this could include: misrepresenting sounds e.g. 'bad' for 'bat', confusion of syllables e.g. 'rember' for 'remember', or intrusive vowels e.g. 'tewenty' for 'twenty'. Dyslexic learners may also read more slowly than their non-dyslexic peers and be more conscious about sharing or showing others their writing. This can impact on the peer learning or group work within the classroom setting. The ability to integrate auditory and visual information is an important aspect of speech perception for listeners with normal hearing and may be even more important for those with hearing loss (Perfetti & Marron, 1998). The earlier hearing loss occurs in a child`s life, the more serious the effects will be on the child`s development; however, with early intervention and support in place the effects

can be minimised. Particular problems could include vocabulary developing more slowly e.g. abstract words, quieter speech sounds not being produced e.g. 'sh' or 'f' (and as a consequence speech will be harder to comprehend) or social isolation leading to infrequent attendance. Learners with profound or pre-lingual deafness are likely to have experienced similar barriers to those above, but may also need extra support to understand English as British Sign Language might be their first language. They will probably use a communicator in an English class, which will enable them to access the auditory content. A deaf student will perhaps take longer to acquire and develop literacy skills due to the nature of this translation; whether it is sign language, note-taking or lip speaking there will inevitably be a delay for both parties to interpret and process the information. There are also many more learning disabilities or difficulties such as visual impairment, Irlen's syndrome, dyspraxia, dysgraphia, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, autism, Asperger's syndrome, Tourette's syndrome and aphasia. Each of these factors would have an effect on a learner which would differ from one individual to the next, but overall they will all impair the social and linguistic interaction between parent and child, or teacher and student. They may also lead to a learner feeling self-conscious in a social setting and becoming more concerned with feeling safe or controlling their behaviour to fit in than concentrating their efforts on learning literacy skills. Learning disabilities and difficulties can also permanently impede a learner's development in early childhood because they may interfere with the so called 'critical period' of brain development, where language skills depend critically on input (Yule, 2000). It is reasonable to state that there are numerous social, cultural and personal factors which could potentially affect a learner's acquisition and development of language skills. Yule (2000) emphasises that cultural transmission of a specific language is crucial in the human acquisition process. Furthermore, considerable evidence

suggests that reading is influenced strongly by early language factors (Grizzle and Simms, 2005). By the time learners reach FE, they bring with them a history of literacy experiences (both good and bad) and a belief in their own language skills which may be difficult to change. There are several theories of language acquisition and despite a numerous amounts of linguistics research many questions remain unanswered (Crain et al., 2006). However, most of the theories and research articles discussed in this assignment highlight human interaction and input as crucial for successful language acquisition. Learning disabilities and difficulties can impede the development of literacy skills, but with early intervention and support improvements can be made.

4.4.8. Teaching and Learning Culture in Second Language Classroom

Teaching culture has been subject of discussions among linguists and language teachers for many years. Some teachers believe that teaching culture will enable language learners to be engaged authentically with the culture of a particular native-speaking community (Bright, 1968). After we understand the significance of teaching culture, we need to perceive the importance of socio-cultural factors and their application in teaching culture since they play an incredibly important role in learning and using a new language better and easier and in the other hand when these factors are not applied in teaching a new language negative consequences like disability in understanding very culture-dependent lessons have been reported. That is the reason why many language learners complain about very vague and ambiguous situations in native speakers' communications in the native environment (Brown, 2007). Today, EFL programs across the globe are attempting to incorporate these ideas into their lesson planning programs and training programs for their non-native language teachers. They hope to enable students to

better their understanding of the new language and facilitate teachers' performance. It should be noted, however, working on socio-cultural competence in language classes doesn't mean asking students to abandon their culture and adopt another identity, but it means offering pieces of information about underlying cultural and social factors which affect discourse and communication instead. This triggers learners' motivation for receiving the new language identity (Williams, 2002). In this study we try answer this question; how teaching culture in language classes boosts socio-cultural competence and from there whole the teaching process becomes more influential by increasing learners' efficiency and saving the instruction time?

4.4.9. Second Language Textbooks and Intercultural Learning

Materials are considered as an essential part of most language teaching programs in various contexts all over the world. Teachers frequently depend on a range of materials such as textbooks, video tapes or audio tapes, pictures, etc. to support their teaching as well as their students' learning. Among these materials, textbooks are regarded as a key element and the main support both for teachers and learners in most language curricula because they can offer useful language forms and input, a fixed structure and syllabus for a program, and consistent instruction. Put differently, "the tangible element that gives a language course face validity to many teachers and learners is the textbook" (Dubin & Olshtain,1986:167).

Like all language teaching programs, English language instruction has many essential factors; however, one of the crucial components to many ESL (English as a Second Language)/EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classrooms is the textbook which is often used by language teachers. Arguments have covered both the potential and the pitfalls of text books in the

learning process and researchers have provided a great deal of information in this regard (Litz, 2005). Many of them believe that text books can play different roles in a language program, such as "a core resource, a source of supplemental material, an inspiration for classroom activities, and even the curriculum itself" (Garinger,2002:1). Among the scholars, Cunnings worth (1995:7) defined the roles of course books in English Language Teaching (ELT) as…

- a resource for presentation material (spoken/written)
- a source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction
- a reference source
- a syllabus
- a resource for self-directed learning or self-access work
- a support for less experienced teachers

Moreover, Hutchinson and Torres (1994:315) suggest… The textbook is an almost universal element of [English language] teaching. Millions of copies are sold every year, and numerous aid projects have been setup to produce the min [various] countries […] No teaching learning situation, it seems, is complete until it has its relevant textbook…

While many scholars try to draw attention to the wide-ranging advantages of using ESL/EFL textbooks, other practitioners take the opposite view and refer to the disadvantages of working with textbooks. Allwright (1981), for example, states that textbooks are not really flexible enough to be used freely as training materials in the classroom since they always show their authors' perspectives and points of views regarding the didactic, psychological, and linguistic aspects of language learning (see also Kitao,1997; Litz,2005). Moreover, they present the world "through the cultural lens of the author" (Paigeet.al, 2003:208).

Brumfit (1980: 30) also argues that "even the best textbooks" reduce the teachers' inventiveness and creativity by suggesting that there is always a hidden "expert" somewhere who can help them in solving their problems.

Generally speaking, extensive reactions accompanying EFL/ESL textbooks often vary between two extremes. One view point refers to the text books as efficient, practical, and profitable tools, but the other sees them as "masses of rubbish skillfully marketed" (Brumfit, 1985:100,1980:30). Due to these two perspectives, teachers have various tendencies towards using textbooks. Some of them plan their lessons working with the textbooks, while others prefer to design their own materials. There is also a group of teachers who use textbooks alongside their own materials simultaneously (see also Thaler,2012). Because of these tendencies, textbooks have always been exposed to the process of evaluation and analysis in order to be improved for different language programs (Ansary&Babaii,2002).

The other important factor which has often had a great influence on textbooks is the emergence of different teaching methodologies throughout the history of language teaching. Owing to this fact, textbook designers and practitioners try to develop their books to reflect the current methodologies and the needs of learners. Following the improvement of different methods of teaching, textbooks are always evaluated by the experts from the perspective of the latest methodological reform. Thus, the advent of different teaching methodologies always provides fresh grounds for the critical evaluation of textbooks.

With the emergence of the Communicative Approach and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and their emphasis on socio-cultural factors, discourse competence, and learners' roles in the classroom, the concept of foreign language learning was perceived as more than just becoming proficient in the vocabulary, the grammar, and the expressions of the target

language. Within this framework, students should be able to use the language in real-life communication. In order to fulfill this task, learners require an understanding of the relationship between language and culture and need to become familiar with those aspects of culture that are significant in situations of language use (Kramsch, 1993).Therefore, the need to include societal context and to acquaint the foreign language learners with the target culture became more and more important. In other words, besides linguistic issues, one of the important aims of English textbooks in non-English speaking societies was to promote intercultural analysis and reflection on the culture of English speaking communities. Furthermore, it was believed that adding cultural content to textbooks could also promote learners' motivation in the process of mastering a foreign language (McKay,2000).

Following this trend in language teaching, textbook evaluators paid much more attention to the relationship between language and culture. Some of them stated that some text-books failed to present authentic language models (Porter&Roberts,1981;Nunan,1989) and contextual language activities (Walz,1989), to present adequate cultural understanding (Kramsch,1987), to address discourse competence (Kaplan&Knutson,1993),to teach idioms (Mola,1993), and to represent gender matters in a balanced way (Graci,1989). On the whole, in their review of the status of culture teaching in the history of foreign language, Paige et al. (2003:209) conclude that language textbooks mostly indicated cultures from a touristic point of view. Thus, they focused more on cultural topics like "food" and "transport". These kinds of information were presented fragmentally with a high level of generalization, referring to the norms of behaviors in the target society, which usually led to prejudicial and stereotypical images. However, the problems mentioned by these scholars cannot be generalized to all of the textbooks since there are also some course books which

consider way of life, contextual activities, cultural understanding, gender differences, idiomatic expressions, and non-prejudicial and stereo typical images in the target society.

Concerning the inclusion of culture in language textbooks, it is firstly necessary to describe the relationship between language and culture. Many theorists believe that language is culturally bound, so language and culture teaching are interrelated and cannot be separated from each other (e.g. Whorf, 1956; Hantrais, 1989; Fishman, 1996; Gupta, 1999, as cited in Jiang, 2010; see also Byram,1989; Kramsch,1998; Pulverness, 2003; Saluveer2004; Lund, 2006; Wang, 2006; Risager, 2007). In line with this view, Prodromou (1988) and Alptekin (1993) state that culture can be considered as a tool in teaching language in the textbooks. To them, it is not possible to teach a language without its cultural aspects. They argue that learning a language without its culture may reinforce stereotypical images and also make learners unwilling and demotivated towards learning a foreign language. All of these authors unanimously believe that fluency in the target language cannot be attainable only with linguistic aspects of the language. Teachers need to develop a cultural understanding of the target language as well. For this reason, the course book, as one of the most important elements in many language teaching contexts, needs to represent a true image of the target language culture alongside its linguistic codes (Çakir, 2010). As a result, since course books can act as a kind of "hidden curriculum" which determines the teaching objectives, content, methods, and assessment, they may also convey implicitly or explicitly a set of ingrained "social and cultural" principles. This invisible curriculum can refer to the unconscious "expression of attitudes and values" and can affect the "content and image of the teaching material" (Cunningsworth,1995:90; Neuner,2007).Thus, it can be more influential than the administrated curriculum presented by the educational system of a country. Likewise Risager (1991:181) states… Foreign language teaching textbooks no longer just

develop concurrently with the development of foreign language pedagogy in a narrow sense, but they increasingly participate in the general cultural transmission with the educational system and in the rest of society.

However, one of the controversial issues in the field of foreign language teaching and material design is the question of how culture should be provided in the textbooks. In other words, which culture and what aspects ought to be included in course books? Cortazzi and Jin (1999:204□210) identifies three types of cultural knowledge and information that can be presented in English language textbooks:

- target culture materials that focus on the culture of English-speaking countries
- where English is used as a first language;
- source culture materials that mirror the learners' local culture;
- international target culture materials that include a wide variety of cultures set in English-speaking countries or other countries where English is not a first or second language, but is used as an international language.

According to McKay (2000:9-10), the most suitable material is based on the international version of the target language, since this necessarily includes a wide range of knowledge from various cultures and countries all around the world using the target language. Two examples of such kinds of textbooks are One World, Secondary English by Priesack and Tomscha (1993) and Panorama by Potter (1990, as cited in Cortazzi & Jin,1999). Similarly, Kilickaya (2004) adds that these kinds of materials which do not force learners to learn about only one culture may enhance the learners' interest in learning a foreign language. Moreover, it can help them to respect other people with different cultures and back-grounds. He also mentions that

the local culture of the learners and the target culture should be incorporated in the textbooks. In contrast, Pulverness (2000) and Alptekin (2002) maintain that some textbooks relate the teaching of English to the students' local culture because of the fact that students require foreign language skills primarily to express them- selves and talk about their own culture. In line with this view, Cortazzi and Jin (1999) state that some of these course books are prepared with the intention to make the students more familiar with their own cultural background (e.g. libro de Ingles in Venezuela, Spotlight on English in Turkey, and English for Saudi Arabia in Saudi Arabia).

Considering the fact that culture is a very broad concept, it seems helpful to distinguish between different aspects of it. One of the most famous classifications in this regard is the so called big-culture and small-culture. The former is not usually difficult to study, as it represents "factual knowledge about the fine arts, such as literature, music, dance, painting, sculpture, theater, and film", while the latter consists of a wide variety of dimensions which are interrelated, containing "attitudes, assumptions, beliefs, perceptions, norms and values, social relationships, customs, rituals, politeness conventions, patterns of interaction and discourse organization, the use of time in communication, and the use of physical space and body language" (Chlopek,2008:11).

Chlopek (2008:11) suggests that some of the aspects of the small-culture, like customs and rituals, are quite palpable and observable, whereas there are some other elements which are "hidden from the eye" and are totally "internalized and sub conscious."These factors are often perceived only in contrast with another culture and have an enormous impact on people's attitudes and behaviors. Lack of knowledge of such behaviors may result in misunderstanding and sometimes miscommunication. This happens since these aspects of culture are implicit rules which are formed by a society. She also adds that being aware of

such knowledge is a necessity for maintaining successful cross-cultural communication.

In another classification by Adaskou, Brittenand Fahsi (1990:3-4), culture can be distinguished in the following way:

1. The aesthetic: Culture with a capital C: the media, the cinema, music (whether serious or popular) and, above all, literature.
2. The sociological: Culture with a small c: the organization and nature of family, of home life, of interpersonal relations, material conditions, work and leisure, customs and institutions.
3. The semantic: The conceptual system embodied in the language. Many semantic areas (e.g. food, clothes, institutions) are culturally distinctive because they relate to a particular way of life.
4. The pragmatic (or sociolinguistic): The background knowledge, social skills, and para-linguistic skills that, in addition to mastery of the language code, make possible successful communication.

Regarding various aspects of culture and their presentation in language textbooks, Lange (2003:347) says…There is no doubt in anyone's mind that the textbook is the curriculum for the language and culture classroom. The literature review has established that in the classroom setting culture learning is largely assumed to be the accumulation of facts (food, dress, holidays, etc.) about a specific culture.

Aside from the factors mentioned above, which influence textbook development, in today's world, where cultural confrontations and meetings can be important parts of our communications, especially in international conferences, trades, and exchanges, the ability to understand and value different cultural perspectives seems necessary. As is generally accepted,

globalization influences societies in all areas: political, economic, cultural and educational. These global changes in societies force people to build up new skills, new experiences, new knowledge and educational systems since they need to establish socio-cultural encounters with others from different cultural backgrounds (Vande Vijver & Leung, 2009). In this situation, in order to communicate and interact at an international level, people need to learn at least a foreign language as a common medium. Nowadays, this common language is mostly English which is spoken by many people in the world. Thus, foreign language teaching, especially ELT, plays an important role in promoting people's skills and knowledge in order to cope with international communications and contacts, and to communicate with people from different cultures. In other words, alongside developing linguistic knowledge, one of the main aims of foreign language teaching is to equip the learners with cultural and inter-cultural skills because as Byramand Fleming (1998:2) say, "learning a language as it is spoken by a particular group is learning the shared meanings, values and practices of that group as they are embodied in the language. "In this sense, text books and teachers, as the central elements in every educational system, will undoubtedly play a key role in this regard (see also Lund, 2006; Edward & Usher, 2008; Rico, 2012).

Within this framework, practitioners should prepare their students to live and communicate cross-culturally in a global society (Mansilla & Gardner, 2007). Todoso, modern language education tries to focus on a new methodology or approach called intercultural language learning through which learners can be interculturally fluent. Intercultural language learning emphasizes the inseparability of language and culture and preparation of language learners for intercultural communication in an "increasingly multicultural world" (Ho, 2009: 63). Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC), which is discussed by Byram (1997), is based on the purposes of this

approach, and alongside linguistic competence will help learners to become cross-culturally proficient. In other words, teaching from an intercultural view point involves learners in analyzing "their own culturally-shaped world view and behaviors" along side understanding the attitudes of people from other cultures to communicate successfully" (Ho, 2009: 63). Put differently, "successful communication might not be viewed as efficiency of information exchange"(Byram,1997: 3),but rather as an ability to value others and create and maintain the relationships (Rico, 2012). Therefore, ICC helps people to become inter culturally as well as linguistically competent (Ho, 2009:63). In this sense, ICC is described based on three main domains of ability:") the ability to develop and maintain relationships,) the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately with minimal loss or distortion, and)the ability to attain compliance and obtain cooperation with others" (Fantini, 2000:27).

Having discussed the concept to culture, its important place in language teaching, and its inclusion in textbooks as one of the crucial factors in language programs, it can be concluded that… [Textbooks] should be designed in such a way that [they make] foreign language learner [familiar with] different aspects of the target language from linguistics to culture.…Finally, and most importantly,[…] the teacher must keep in mind that it is not enough to be only linguistically competent, but to be able to use and understand the language appropriately… (Çakir, 2010:188).

Furthermore, according to Sercu (2000:248) based on what Ausubel (1977) and Ausubeletal. (1978, as cited in Sercu, 2000) claim, materials and textbooks can encourage language learning when they are significantly connected to the students' "existing schemata," and help them relate the new contents to what they already know. Thus, by making this connection, they are firstly able to analyze their own background and cultural identity and secondly to understand other people's perceptions in order to communicate successfully.

4.4.10. The Impact of Cultural Content in Language Text Books

During the last decades, the number of studies conducted to investigate the impact of cultural content in language text books on fostering the acquisition of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC), which helps learner to behave and act both linguistically and culturally in an appropriate way when dealing with people from other cultures and countries (Savignon,1997), has not been great in the international context As a result, the focus of most studies in the field of textbook evaluation is on the linguistic appropriateness of the course books, and this has led to the development of various evaluation checklists in terms of linguistic elements

Language materials, especially textbooks, offer different perspectives on language, communication, and culture. For example, some of them foster the idea that learning a language is associated with the mastery of grammar, vocabulary, expressions needed for daily communication, and communicative skills (e.g. Spring and English Net in Turkey and English Book 1, 2, 3 in Iran). In this sense, learners become good communicators when they are able to exchange information and express themselves. Others focus on giving factual information about the products of a country in order to teach culture and sometimes under-represent the concept of culture and refer to it in the form of touristic images (e.g. New Senior English for China series). Moreover, there are some textbooks that deal merely with one specific culture, particularly the target culture, thereby failing to refer to the native culture of the students and provoking a sense of cultural imposition (e.g. Grow with English in Indonesia and Think it Over in Algeria).Because of the important role of English as an international language in the world, however, students need to acquires kills in order to prepare themselves to negotiate meaning with people from different cultures and

mediate between their own and other cultures. Given their important role in language classes, textbooks should therefore focus not only on the culture of Britain or the USA, but rather help the learners to become familiar with their own and other cultures including various English-peaking cultures, and even the culture of countries where English is spoken as a second or foreign language. In this way, textbooks can provide the students with a multi-faceted image of different countries which can help raise their awareness of cultural diversity and differences in the world.

Nevertheless, apart from the problems mentioned previously, there are some other drawbacks regarding these issues in language textbooks which have been discussed by many authors. For instance, in many countries, textbooks offer only insights into the native culture of the students because the aim of foreign language teaching in these countries is to prepare the students to express themselves and talk about their own culture in English or other languages (EnglishBook 1, 2,3 in Iran, El librode Ingles in Venezuela, English for Saudi Arabia in Saudi Arabia, and Spotlight in English and A Modern English Course for Turks in Turkey). Furthermore, some textbooks present a shallow and superficial image of cultures, stressing stereo typical images and over generalizing about different cultures (e.g. Main stream and Fresh English in Japan). However, many scholars argue that in this globalized world textbooks should try to represent a true picture of the cultures, reduce stereotypes, and promote learners' intercultural communicative competence in terms of "sensitivity, to lerability, and flexibility to wards cultural diversities" (Xiao,2010:2).

Alongside these issues, due to the important influence of learners 'beliefs on their language learning, which can cause positive or negative attitudes towards learning a language and its culture (Paigeet. al, 2000), the content of the textbooks as one of the most significant teaching materials and transmitter of

cultural values in the classroom should be designed in a way that enhances positive attitudes and motivation since textbooks can affect the way the learners think and act in the process of learning a foreign language.

This study has been motivated by the significance of accommodating the concept of ICC in English textbooks, the lack of comparative studies in international contexts (e.g. Byram & Risager, 1999; Sercu et al., 2005; Rimani Nikou& Soleimani, 2012) of the analysis of language textbooks regarding cultural and intercultural aspects, the importance of teaching English as an International language, and finally there searcher's interest in cultural and intercultural teaching and material development. The primary purpose of this work is to evaluate English textbooks regarding the incorporation of ICC at the upper-secondary school Level of three European countries (Germany, the Netherlands, and Sweden) and one Asian country (Iran) where English is taught as a foreign language. In other words, the main focus of the present research is to investigate the cultural and intercultural aspects presented in the English textbooks of the four afore mentioned countries. The secondary aim is to Explore teachers' and learners' opinions about their English textbooks both from linguistic and intercultural viewpoints in these countries. In this way, the beliefs of teachers and students as the actual users of the textbooks are presented alongside the textual analysis by the researcher.

4.5. Conclusion

There are several theories within the field of linguistics that attempt to explain how people learn a second language. In the field of second language learning (SLL) socio-cultural theory is claimed as a universal view. According to socio-cultural theorist Vygotsky (1962) language comes out from cultural and social activity and only later becomes reconstructed as an individual,

psychological phenomenon. In this way of thinking SLL theory should be centered not so much on the process of learning new structures and sounds and then using them to communicate, but rather on the learner's participation in social activities such as having out-of-class conversation, or talking to classmates and teachers. Language learning is not all about learning the lexicon and grammar of a specific language. It encompasses many other factors such as how knowledge of the language is transferred and how communication and interaction affect the process of learning. Learning does not happen in vacuum. In order to be a successful and proficient language learner, the person needs to make use of all his/her cognitive and social skill to master the language.

Learning a second language is a long and complicated process that involves all aspects of a language such as lexicon, grammar, reading, writing, speaking, etc. In this process, some language learners are, not surprisingly, more successful than others depending on many factors. However there are some crucial factors influencing the success of language learning. In language classes, it may be useful to increase the types of activities and tasks that provide more per interaction. Such an approach can create the collaborative atmosphere in the language classroom, providing more interactive learning opportunities for language learners.

Chapter 5

Teaching and Learning of English in Non-native countries

5.1. Introduction

There is no doubt about that English has become an international language. According to Crystal (1997), English is the language that has spread throughout the world most extensively and is dominating in a number of important fields including international commerce, education, and communication. Many non-native English countries have included English in the school curriculum in recognition that it can contribute to students' personal, linguistic, social, and cultural development. In many post-colonial countries such as India and Philippines, English was chosen as one of the official languages and is still effectively functioning as a dominant language. Moreover, the countries which have once opposed foreign influence such as Korea, Japan and China are now giving English language teaching and learning much greater priority in their foreign language policy.

5.2. English as an International Language

Although there are ethical questions concerning the way English has established its present status as an international language, it is hard to deny the reality of its dominance today. It is

so not because English is inherently superior to other languages, but because it carries a "vehicular load"; it is a medium for science, technology and literature.

English has become the 'lingua franca' of the world with a massive and growing population of L2 speakers of the language. Globalization has pushed it forward as the language of business, knowledge and technology.

The problem of English-teaching today not taking into account the role of English as an international and intranational language was first raised by Larry Smith in 1976. Previously English-teaching has been classified as "English as a Foreign Language" (EFL) and "English as a Second Language" (ESL). However, this classification does not adequately deal with situations where English has been used for other purposes. Today, it is estimated that there are over 600 million users of English throughout the world, of whom about half are non-native speakers of English (Kachru, 1984). Another study shows that there are as many as two billion people who have some ability in English (Crystal, 1985). As a result, the native speakers of English may well come to be outnumbered by the non-native speakers. In other words, it is likely that non-native speakers of English will communicate with each other using English as their common language.

The realization of the new role of English led to the philosophy of English as an International Language (EIL) which was advocated in order to emphasize the function of English for cross-cultural and cross-national understanding. The major premise of the EIL approach to English teaching is that "the use of English is always culture bound but the English language is not bound to any specific culture or political system" (Baxter, 1980, p.4). The EIL argument is that learners must be given basic skills for communicating with any potential interlocutors, of whatever national, linguistic, or cultural background. This

approach has taken English teaching much closer to integration with intercultural training. The goal is teaching members of one culture to interact effectively through English with members of other cultures, with minimal misunderstanding.

5.3. English in Global Context

It is a well-known fact that English is the most widely used language and the chief vehicle of international communication in the world today. The term 'Global English' is a product of the process called globalization. Ideally and ideologically 'globalization' should mean decolonization and denationalization of a language. David Crystal in his book; 'English as a Global language' (1997) says: ―A language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country.

In this way English language has become the lingua franca in the age of globalization. Two-thousand year ago, the English language was quite unknown to the world. Today there are perhaps 1.5 billion people around the world, who use the English language. They speak English or write in English. There are three hundred and fifty million people who use the language as their mother tongue and the rest use it as a Foreign or Second language. It is the only language widely used from China to Peru, and more scattered than any other language in the world. It is estimated that there are even more users of English than of Chinese language, a language spoken in eight different verities but written in the same way by 1.1 billion people.

English was originally restricted is its native land and native speakers. Now seven million people make use of English daily and only half of them are native speakers of the language (Quirk, 1985:1). English is more widely spread, and is the chief language of more countries than any other language. There are many millions of people who live in countries where English is

equally not a native language but where English is wide-spread use for what we may call 'internal' purposes. Such countries range in size from India, a multilingual over populated vast country to Singapore, a less populated tiny country. English in these countries play a sharply different and much wider role of. There the language is usually designated in the constitution as one of the 'national' languages, along with indigenous ones. English in these circumstances is considered as 'second language' and the countries are considered as ESL countries (English Second language countries). English is not 'foreign' language' in India, though the proportion of the population making competent use of it in fact far smaller than in several advanced EFL countries (English Foreign Language countries) as the Netherland. In the countries such as UK, the US, Australia, and South Africa English is a native language; they are ENL countries (English Native Language countries). It may be remarked that English is a global language in each of these three categories: there are ENL, ESL, and EFL countries all round the world (Quirk, 1985:2).

The English language works pretty well in its global context today: certainly the globe has at present no plausible substitute. We can quote four examples of English working best in the global context (Quirk, 1985:6). There are BBC World Service of London; All India Radio Delhi; the Straits Times of Singapore; and the Japan Times of Tokyo. They represent oral and printed media, and they represent ENL, ESL, and EFL countries. They all use a form of English that is both understood and respected in every corner of the globe where any knowledge of variety of English exists. They adhere to forms of English familiarly produced by only a minority of English speakers in any of the four countries concerned.

5.4. Current State of the Art

In the 20th and 21st centuries, English has become an indispensable part of educational curriculum in Iranian schools. Despite all the efforts and investments devoted to cultivate and popularize English among no-native language learners, the resultant outcome could not live up to the authorities' expectations. Generally speaking, the process of teaching and learning English as a foreign language in Iran is not satisfactory. A great body of research has proved that different factors are involved in this process. The researcher made an attempt to examine all the possibly existing researches which investigated/focused on the problems of teaching/learning English in Iran to elicit these factors and to scrutinize the existing problems. It is also an attempt to highlight what can be done to improve the situation significantly. A classification of these factors was suggested and it was indicated that these factors are highly interrelated.

Currently, English has dominated the context of foreign language learning and teaching in most of the non-native counteries. English language is considered by many as the international language. Its acquisition can guarantee the availability of opportunities to employment, traveling, higher education, and even better life (Crystal, 1997). Teaching English as a foreign language is a challenging task in developing countries in general and in countries like India and Sri Lanka. English has been included in the curriculum of Iranian schools and universities and considerable attention has been paid to this language in our society for the following reasons: first of all, access to and use of the latest technological and scientific resources mainly written in English calls for an efficient amount of English language proficiency. Secondly, coping with the demands of the era of information explosion and the efficient use of the Internet makes learning English as a necessity. Thirdly, mastery of English facilitates cultural exchange among nations including the proposal of the dialog among civilizations.

5.5. English Language Teaching in Different Parts of the World

English language, without a doubt, is considered a first worldly language, even in countries which do not use English as a first language. It is the common language used between all people from different areas in the world (Battle & Lewis 2002). In many countries, even Arab countries, they use English as a main language in class, which helps the students acquire this language as their mother tongue, especially if it is used in all times (Warschauer & Zohry, 2002). Brown (2000) and Schweers (1999) propose that starting the classroom with the first language provides a sense of security and validates the learner's academic experiences, allowing them to express themselves".

5.5.1. English Language Teaching in India

Teaching and learning English in India has always been a challenge, both for the teachers and the taught. Widely spoken throughout the world English took over Indian languages with the coming of the colonial rule. Gradually it became part of the curriculum in academic institutes and language of communication of the elite. The English rule faced a stiff resistance in Punjab from the native ruling power and the language faced a challenge in becoming a medium of instruction and conversation in the state. The result is that learning the language is a phobia and a complex challenge for the majority. Mushrooming of private and commercial institutes have made it all the more important to sensitize the English teachers to focus and tackle the students at all levels of growth and grooming.

5.5.1.1. Historical Background

India inherited English from the Britishers who ruled the country for more than two centuries. For over 200 years Indian

intellectuals have been studying English. Today English has entered the fabric of Indian culture. English education in India began with the year 1765, when the East India Company became a political power. The first six decades of English education in India did not witness any remarkable progress. Firstly Macaulay's Minutes (1835) paved the way for the development of English in India by making its study compulsory. His this famous minute on education became the 'Manifesto of English Education' in India. Macaulay's minute was very clear and unambiguous about the goals of English education in India.

As a result of this system of education, English became the unifying force in India because it was used for internal communication. Besides, many English educated Indians could think and express themselves as effectively as the English.

The most efforts of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century were made on the supremacy of English language and literature. Dr. Zakir Hussain Committee of Basic Education (1938) recommended that the proper teaching of the mother tongue is the foundation of all education, without the capacity to speak effectively and to read and write correctly and lucidly, no one can develop precision of thought and clarity of ideas. This committee included a seven year course of Basic education. And this course of Basic education emphasized the importance of the mother tongue. The constituent Assembly of 1949 indicated the significance of English in India.

After Independence drastic changes came regarding the place of English in India .Since it was a language of the rulers who had exercised cruelties over Indians, the first reaction was to dethrone English from its exalted position. All the commissions and committees appointed to the study of the problem of education in India have emphasized the importance of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction and the study of English as a subject; these were emphasized earlier by all the committees

and commissions, starting with the wood's Dispatch. All the recommendations are well entrenched in the educational system of India; English got institutionalized in India and it got its own identity after 1947. After independence the question of language become more emotional. The constitution of India has given Hindi in Devanagari script the status of the official language of the country. The first national language among the fourteen was recognized in the 8th schedule.

In the present scenario, India has two national languages for central administrative purpose. They are Hindi and English. Hindi is the national official and main link language in India. English is an associate language. The Indian constitution also officially approves twenty two regional languages for official purpose. In present time, English serves two purposes. First, it provides a linguistic tool for the administrative cohesiveness of the country, causing people who speak different languages to become united. Secondly it serves as a language of wider communication, including a large variety of different people covering a vast area.

Generally, English is used among Indians as a 'link language' and virtually it is the first language for many well educated Indians. It is the second language for many, who speak more than one language in India. The English language is a tie that helps bind the many segments of our society together. Also it is a linguistic bridge between the major countries of the world and India.

5.5.1.2 Status of English in India

India is a developing country and the teaching of English has become a real challenge right from the beginning of the history of English language teaching till date. Though language is the backbone of civilizations and cultures across the world but still everybody in our country is lamenting on

the deteriorating condition of English in schools and colleges. English as a language is insufficiently developed in most of the students of schools especially government schools in region of Punjab. The irony is even after spending 10-12 crucial years of their life learning English language from I to +2, most of the students remain tongue-tied and the same heritage of functionally illiterate learners in English is passed on to the colleges and the most affected ones are the students of BA stream. Moreover, the higher authorities always expect good results and teachers are caught in the mire as whether to complete syllabus or improve the English language of the learners.

It is astonishing to note that the English language has won 'global status' or 'International Language', and all the evidence suggests that the position of English as a global language is going to become stronger but we have to swallow this bitter pill that teaching spoken English to the Indian students has remained a major challenge to the language teachers for ages.

In the present scenario, India has two national languages for central administrative purpose. They are Hindi and English. Hindi is the national official and main link language in India. English is an associate language. The Indian constitution also officially approves twenty two regional languages for official purpose.

In present time, English serves two purposes. First, it provides a linguistic tool for the administrative cohesiveness of the country, causing people who speak different languages to become united. Secondly it serves as a language of wider communication, including a large variety of different people covering a vast area.

Generally, English is used among Indians as a 'link language' and virtually it is the first language for many well educated Indians. It is the second language for many, who speak more than one language in India. The English language is a tie

that helps bind the many segments of our society together. Also it is a linguistic bridge between the major countries of the world and India.

Now it has a special national status in India. It has a special place in the parliament, judiciary, broadcasting, journalism and in the education system. One find surrounded by English everywhere. The importance of the ability to speak or write English has recently increased significantly because English has become the defected standard. Learning English language has become popular for business, commerce and cultural reasons and especially for internet communication. Modern communications, videos, Journals and newspapers on the internet use English and have made 'Knowing English' indispensable. In this way we can say that English language has become an 'official language', 'associate language', 'associate additional language', 'library language', 'tool language', 'compulsory language', 'optional language', 'additional optional language', 'language of wider communication,' and 'language of need filling'.

5.5.1.3. English as a Second Language in India

English in India is a question of linguistic centralism while the other Indian languages lead to linguistic regionalism.. A foreign language existing so firmly and distinctly has posed a problem to the country. From Macaulay to Manmohan Singh, we have seen many reports and commissions; but these have been only exhortations and attempts to improve the position of regional languages. Yet, the language problem became more Complicated without any practical solution. It developed into a very serious problem as no solution has been offered. The growing modernization and internationalism in the world prevented us from doing away with the English language. Besides, Indian languages are often associated with tradition and are understood to be anti-modern. Therefore, a complete switchover to the Indian

languages would lead to educational chaos and total isolation from the developments on the international arena. We could not risk this because of the cultural, social, political and economic reasons. Hence, this situation needed an urgent solution.

The only resolution that could be thought of was a need for coexistence of English with Indian languages. As a result, we had to define the role of English in India and its relationship with Indian languages. This gave rise to language planning. Consequently, the major Indian languages became the Regional Languages.' Hindi was given the status of Official Language and English was accepted as the other Official Language. It was considered that English would promote integration as it cannot be identified with any region. Further, the role of English was strengthened and consolidated as English was recognized and perceived as:

- The language of knowledge (Science and Technology)
- The language of liberal, modern thinking
- A window on the world
- The language of library, reason

Thus, the three language formula came into existence. This policy was proposed in 1956 by the Central Advisory Board on Education and was adopted at the Chief Minister's conference in 1961. The policy aimed at making English an integral part of the school education in India. This naturally restricted the learning and use of Hindi and the students started learning English as a second language. Accordingly, the classical languages, particularly Sanskrit, suffered a decline and English became the second language in education both in Hindi and non-Hindi speaking areas.

English plays an important role in producing and promoting changes and accepting new trends in the modern Indian society. English generates modernity, imparts new knowledge and

skills and gives a formal system of living which is found in the developed countries of the world. Majority of the standard journals and magazines are published in English. It is true that if we have knowledge of reading, writing, understanding, speaking English, we would have better knowledge of science and technology, social sciences, industry and health.

Language experts agreed that English learning is a very important aspect of life. English has enjoyed and still enjoys a very important place in the curriculum of Anglo-Vernacular schools in our country. It has been used as an official language, the language of administration of courts, legislature, etc. It is a language which has a rich literature and also covers the vast spectrum of science and technology as well as industries and commerce.

English also plays an important role in the national life of India. It still continues to influence the life and profession of the majority of educated Indians in every walk of life. The teaching of English has traveled a long way during fifty years in free India but the controversies and contradictions remain the same as before. The fate of English language teachers and learners does not seem to be very bright, if the activities of the various academic bodies at the boards and the universities level are considered seriously. The academic positions are over-shadowed by non-academic ones and the teaching of English remains an activity, questionable in its relevance.We have had a variety of English language teaching programmes in our country at the secondary and tertiary levels: programmes organized by the District Centres, ELT Institutes, Regional Institutes of English, Regional Colleges of Education, Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages, etc. In addition, these institutions have been organizing a variety of workshops, seminars, conferences and short courses. There are a number of review type evaluations of ELT programmes. ELT programmes in the country may be viewed as a network of process - creating English based, high English and low English,

English centered switching and mixing. These programmes are designed to help learners learn how to mean in a multi-lingual setting. In making ELT programmes effective we may use the following suggestions - language choice and language ordering in a multi-lingual setting, the role of English as a source language, the status of English as an associate national official language, the function of English as an international link language, etc. In the educational scenario of India today, the abilities of teaching and learning English language seem to be sadly lacking. This lacunae can be attributed to a number of factors, the major one being the lack of motivation on the part of students due to various reasons such as - lack of awareness regarding the importance and scope of the English language, faculty teaching techniques, lack of interest of knowledge of books which may not have practical application, stereotype kind of syllabi which may not cater the needs of the students. The stalwarts from the field of education need to realize that what is needed is a revolution in the present syllabi which creates bookworms and not efficient communicators. The objective of teaching as well as learning English in India needs to be defined in clear terms.

5.5.1.4. Challenges for English in India

One of the primary causes is believed the contradictory cries and slogans that are raised by leaders and those in authority regarding the future of English in the country. While some responsible educators lay stress frequently on the importance of retaining English for the time being as a Lingua franca, and as the main language for university studies, as well as the easiest way of communicating with the rest of the world, there are others who proclaims from the housetops that the teaching of English is to be eliminated entirely from our schools and colleges. The daily newspapers have, of late, devoted several columns almost every week to vehement pronouncements of advocates of both schools of thought.

This interminable debate has been continuing for the last two years or more with increasing zeal and fervor, and the pendulum of public opinion sways violently from side to side. The result of all this is that the teacher of English is like a bark without an anchor, and has grave doubts about the relative place and importance of the subject he is teaching. Many parents get confused, similarly, and do not know whether it is worthwhile insisting on their children acquiring proficiency in English at the cost of much time and effort. A major result of this indecision and conflict of opinions is that three different types of institutions with varying objectives with regard to the teaching of English continue to exist side by side in the country. Those parents who believe that the mastery of the English language by a child from the earlier age is absolutely essential and a passport to success in life, send their children to the English medium schools- these are the public schools, and some of the private as well as private –aided schools. Here the sons and daughters of the privileged few, who can afford high fees, learn English as a first language .English is the medium of instruction, and teachers speak English fluently themselves. Infect the selection of the staff is based on the assumption that they have a mastery over English. Many of these schools prepare students for the State‘s Higher Secondary, High School, Matriculation, School Leaving Examinations, or in some cases for the Cambridge or Indian Schools Certificate Examinations. It has been calculated that roughly one to two percent of pupils in the secondary schools in various States, attend these schools.

5.5.2. English Language Teaching in China

As China continues to modernise and open to the world, demand for English language skills has intensified and enthusiasm for learning English is also at an all-time high. As Jiang (2003) says, “governments are encouraging their citizens to learn English, parents are persuading, even forcing, their

children to speak it and college students are doing English at the expense of their majors" (p. 6).

Although the importance of English is widely acknowledged, Chinese students and teachers frequently comment that the major challenge they face in acquiring the language is that "China does not have a good English language environment" by which they mean there are insufficient opportunities to use English in real life situations and a lack of exposure to authentic English language material. Although at first this appears to be a reasonable assumption, a closer look at the use of English in China reveals that China's English language environment is actually much richer than is commonly believed. This paper will show the types of English language material and opportunities to use the language readily available to Chinese students and teachers and suggest ways to raise awareness of them and ways in which they could be used, both in and outside the classroom.

5.5.2.1. China as EFL Country

Brown (2000, p. 193) points out that the line between English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts has become blurred and it is no longer easy to distinguish between the two. This is certainly the case with China, usually classified as either an EFL or expanding circle country where English is used primarily as a means for international communication, yet exhibits a high degree of the use of English within the country. English is used fairly extensively in the domains of science and technology, the media, tourism and international connections and business, which means there is a large amount of authentic material, and even opportunities to use the language in real life situations, available for use by students and teachers.

There has been growing enthusiasm for English learning in China in recent years. This development, along with the

introduction of a new English curriculum in 2001, has brought a breakthrough in English language teaching (ELT) in China. In the new curriculum, the traditional emphasis on grammar and vocabulary is replaced by a focus on the development of communication skills. How do Chinese mainland teachers perceive ELT these days? Are they ready for the paradigm shift? This article reports a study that attempts to answer these two questions. The study includes a questionnaire survey with 214 primary English language teachers from Guangdong and observation of two demonstration lessons conducted by local teachers. The findings reveal that although many teachers had a heightened awareness of the importance of using the learner-centered approach to enhance students' communicative competence, their teaching was still directed by textbooks, with authentic teaching materials seldom being used. This article

Enthusiasm for English learning has been growing in China at a rapid rate over the past few years, facilitated by the growing perception that being competent in English can increase one's economic and social mobility (Adamson, 2004; Lam, 2005). As China has increased contact with the outside world, with the introduction of the four modernizations in the 1980s, the entry into the World Trade Organization in 2001, the hosting of the 2008 Olympics in Beijing and the Expo 2010 in Shanghai, English learning has become more important and popular 138 Jackie Fung-King Lee throughout China. Taxi drivers, shop assistants, and civil servants can be seen with English books in hand. Books such as English for Policemen and Taxi Driver's English are available in bookshops (Y. Jiang, 2003).

With English learning becoming a passion in the nation, television courses, radio lessons, part-time or evening schools have offered various learning opportunities for people to learn English. Launched in 2000, CCTV-9 (CCTV International in English), the English-language 24-hour channel of China Central Television (CCTV), has been a breakthrough for English learning

in China in the 21st century. CCTV-9, together with the China Daily (the largest official English-language newspaper) and China Radio International, provides Chinese people with much easier access to authentic English these days.

In formal education, English has become a requirement for university entrance examinations in China. In big cities like Shanghai, regular English classes are offered in some kindergartens. It is considered important to let young children learn English early so that they can achieve high scores, enter elite universities, and find good jobs in the future. In most cities and towns, children now start to learn English as a foreign language in Primary 3. With 456,900 primary schools having an enrollment of 121,567,100 students in 2002 (Ministry of Education, 2003), the English language teaching (ELT) industry in China is rapidly developing and is in the process of reform and renovation (Wu, 2001). There is now an urgent demand for English language teachers.

5.5.2.2. Authoritarian teaching style in China

One may wonder whether the teachers in China are ready for drastic changes. Culturally, under the influence of Confucianism, teachers are regarded as "knowledge holders" (Yu, 2001, p. 196), and pedagogy is "classroom-based," "teacher-centered," and "textbook-directed."

The classroom is characterized by teachers' authoritative teaching of the textbook and students' passive acceptance of that teaching. Emphasis is placed on learning of grammatical structure, use of memorization and rote learning, correction of mistakes, and use of translation (Rao, 2002). Song (2000) describes a typical Chinese classroom as follows:

In their classroom … texts are being translated into exact Chinese, sentences are being analyzed, and grammar rules are

dwelt upon and learned by heart. Textbooks remain a crutch for both the teacher and the students. The classroom atmosphere tends to be monotonous and uninspiring with the teacher doing all the talking and the students listening. (p. 36).

Geng (2007) uses the word "toxic" to describe the authoritarian teaching style in China. This kind of "toxic" teaching, which focuses on command and control, with no regard to diversity or pedagogical effectiveness, fails to help young people develop critical and creative mind, and improve learning motivation. Studies such as Zhang, Lu, and Shao (2000) reveal that students' interest in English learning is low in China and that their interest declines as they progress through school (X. N. Jiang, 2004; Liu, 2002; Yang & Nicholas, 2008). What makes the situation worse is that most teachers in China lack sufficient knowledge of, and training in, current ELT methodologies, and their language proficiency, especially their oral proficiency, is low (Liu, 2002; Penner, 1995; Song, 2000).

5.5.2.3. Present Day Positive Trends

The present day trend seems to be favourable to learning English in China. Although there is not the same amount of authentic material and opportunities to use English as in ENL countries like Australia and England, China nevertheless has a rich and varied English language environment. The authentic materials available ranges from academic texts to materials exist in print, audio and visual forms. There are also some opportunities to use English to communicate with other learners and in the context of real world tasks. While there may indeed be some difficulties associated with incorporating such material and opportunities into the teaching and learning experience, efforts have been made to do this so that Chinese students and teachers can benefit from the English language environment around them.

5.5.3. English Language Teaching Sri Lanka

The British colonial presence in South Asia led to the introduction of English to Sri Lanka. Since 1681, some words have been borrowed from the Sri Lankan language[clarification needed] by English. In 1948, Sri Lanka gained independence from the British Monarchy and English was no longer the only official language. In subsequent years, inequality in access to education, and national conflict have confounded the development and use of SLE, particularly in Sri Lankan literature. SLE may vary from British or American English in elements such as colloquialisms, vocabulary, syntax, pronunciation and emphasis of syllables.

5.5.3.1. Language Situation is Sri Lanka

As per 2016, the Sinhala language is mostly spoken by the Sinhalese people, who constitute approximately 74.9% of the national population and total about 16.6 million. It uses the Sinhala abugida script, which is derived from the ancient Brahmi script. The Rodiya language, a dialect of Sinhala, is spoken by the low-caste community of chamodi veddhas. The Veddah people, totaling barely 2,500 in 2002, are thought to have once spoken a distinct language, possibly a creolized form of an earlier indigenous language. The Tamil language is spoken by Sri Lankan Tamils, as well as by Tamil migrants from the neighboring Indian state of Tamil Nadu and by most Sri Lankan Moors. Tamil speakers number around 4.7 million. There are more than 50,000 speakers of the Sri Lankan Creole Malay language, which is strongly influenced by the Malay language.

5.5.3.2. Historical Backdrop for English Education in Sri Lanka

Sri Lanka is a post-colonial country with a history going back to more than 100 years as a part of the British Empire. English

was the language of power in the era of the British. English was the official language of the country from 1815 to 1956, and it is still widely used in government, administration, and higher education. As a colonial language, English continued to be the official language even after Sri Lanka (then Ceylon) gained independence in 1948. (Coperahewa, 2009, p. 79) Learning the language of the conqueror meant that the learner would land in the upper circles in the social hierarchy. "A dual system of schools was started during this period where government assisted English medium schools, which were patronized by the elite and a system of schools administered by the state in the vernacular for common people" (planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/). The wealthy elite were able to attend these English schools. This also meant that they would be able to procure a good job in the government. The poorer of the society had to follow the vernacular education which denied them the chance for upward mobility due to language constrictions. "Sri Lankan society was never egalitarian. The prevalence of a hereditary caste system in past centuries, where birth decreed employment, worked against equality as some castes (farmers, for example were at the top of the hierarchy) were considered more prestigious than other (fishermen, drummers, etc.). Language, however, was never the basis of any significant socio-political inequality till English became the official language of the country" (Fernando, 1996, p. 509). Thus, English, under the British regime became the marker of wealth, socio-economic power and political power.

The influence of the nationalist movement which raged throughout the South Asian subcontinent and the economic shock of WW ii on Britain gave Sri Lanka the opportunity of gaining independence from the British. The long held anger towards the British Raj and many failed attempts towards liberation finally paid off. Simultaneous to the nationalistic movement spearheaded by the Indian patriots, rebellions had been taking place in Sri Lanka. Many nationalistic leaders tried to instill a sense of patriotism and national pride among the masses.

Sri Lanka was granted independence in 1948. English remained as the official language of the country even after the independence until 1956. Politicians with the 'Oxford accent' were in prominence in these days and were highly respected for their knowledge in English and belonged to the upper elite classes. The change or governments the new nationalistic movement brought changes in language policies. The Official Language Act No. 33 declared Sinhala as the only official language in 1956. It replaced English which had been imposed as the official language under British colonial rule. However, English did not lose the power it had held for nearly 200 years. It continued being held up as the language of the elite and the academic classes. Language and national identity is undeniably intertwined in the Sri Lankan context. In Sri Lanka however, language became a marker of ethnic differences when the common enemy was driven away. The two main spoken languages Sinhala and Tamil marked the difference between the Sinhala ethnic majority and the ethnic minorities, Tamil and Muslims. English after the 1987 amendment, currently functions as a link language between the two language communities. Sinhala people are marked by their speech from Tamils and Muslims who speak Tamil. According to Gunasekera (2005) the national consciousness brought upon the marginalization of non-Sinhala speaking communities; therefore when

English lost its position as the official language of the country it also broke down the collective identity of Sri Lanka and broke it down to different identities based on their language or ethnicity. With time the socio-political power related to English began to dwindle. Sinhala and Tamil have taken over as the major languages of the country, with English being retained as a complementary second language in specific domains. …

Accordingly, linguistic elitism, professional and cultural, rather than imperialism in the form of socio-political hegemony, best describes the effects of English in the present day Sri Lanka."

(Fernando, 1996) By the late '80s English became a language needed for economic development. With the introduction of global economy and globalization to Sri Lanka, English became a highly marketable asset.

Bacause of globalization,socio,economic and political development, the government of Sri Lanka decided to introduce bilingual programmes in the state owned schools in 2001, and as a result of this initially some well-established schools were selected for this purpose (Karunakaran,2012). It was decided to opt for maintenance bilingual program which is very successful in many countries. As per the model being practiced in the world, the children are allowed to start their education in their L1 when they join the school. Later, English is introduced as a medium of instruction when they move to 6th grade. As of now some 7 subjects such as Math, Science, Health Science, Civics are taught in English and the remaining subjects are taught in either Tamil or English. The bilingual programe which is implemented in Sri Lanka is not a compulsory one and those who wish to choose bilingual education are allowed to continue their studies in bilingual programmes (Karunakaran,2012). Realty of bilingual program is that though it is not very successful across the island, some children did benefit from this bilingual education progrmme. Recently, a new proposal was accepted and implemented in public schools and according to which, schools are supposed to teach Sinhala and Tamil using a trilingual programme aiming to enhance the proficiency Sinhala in Tamil speaking areas and Tamil in Sinhala speaking areas.

5.5.3.3. Sri Lankan English

Ceylonese English is the English language as it is spoken in Sri Lanka. However, the classification of Sri Lankan English (SLE) as a separate dialect of English is controversial. English in Sri Lanka is fluently spoken by approximately 10% of the

population, and widely used for official and commercial purposes. It is the native language of approximately 74,000 people.

English in Sri Lanka is fluently spoken by approximately 10% of the population, and widely used for official and commercial purposes. It is the native language of approximately 74,000 people, mainly in urban areas. A handful of the 3,400 people of Portuguese descent speak Sri Lankan Portuguese creole. The Muslim community in Sri Lanka widely uses Arabic for religious purposes. Seldom used nowadays is Arwi, a written register of Tamil that uses the Arabic script and has extensive lexical influences from Arabic.

5.5.3.4. ELT in Sri Lanka

The reality that we encounter in the English language teaching domain today is that we no longer can claim that there is a single form of English which we could adopt as the universal standard; instead we have many standards, all equally correct and acceptable. We are obliged to talk about Englishes, not English.

The multiplicity of standard forms of English is a formidable problem for the practical teacher in the language classroom. In Sri Lanka where we teach English as a second language at all levels from the primary to the tertiary we obviously cannot tell our pupils, "Unlike in the past we now believe that there are many acceptable standard Englishes, not just one. You must learn the variety of English that is the most appropriate one for you". Such advice may be enlightening to people who already know their English quite well. Where learners are concerned, it is teachers who must deal with the problem of "standard" in terms of which they may arbitrate on matters of linguistic acceptability/ correctness.

This is where "the importance of advocating a standard for the language" comes. In fact, the question regarding a suitable standard for us to adopt in teaching English as a second

language is in the process of being settled by local scholars in a context where the "many Englishes" idea is accommodated. This means that a standard Sri Lankan variety of English is being identified. However, there is still a lot of uncertainty, controversy and unfinished work surrounding the subject, which is naturally likely to put off those who, in any case, have not taken kindly to what appear to be deviations from the "standard English" of yesteryear.

5.5.3.5. English in the Modern World and in Sri Lanka

In present-day Sri Lanka, the government is dedicated to provide an English education to its entire population, with new language policies giving high importance to English as a language of international importance. English is taught from grade 3 to 13 and the students have to face two main English tests for their Government Certificate of Education Ordinary Level at grade 11 and Advanced Level at grade 13.

Government revenue is spent on developing English teaching programs and by implementing English teaching programs at primary, secondary and tertiary levels through the ministries of Education, Higher education and Vocational Authorities. Universities are funded by many forms of international funds as the IRQUE project and HETC project to enhance English education.

Programs like "Learn English our Way", had been established to encourage students to shed their anxieties and learn the language. The ministry of education also has set up a program under the title, "English as a life skill" which is linked to the presidential initiative under the former president geared to promote English Listening and speaking skills (Department of Education, news item). This could be an implementation towards reducing the English speaking anxiety that most students face when they interact in classroom sessions or outside.

Most have a fear of making mistakes and of exposing their low aptitude in English. This too is a demotivating element where the student in fear or anxiousness of making mistakes would avoid situations where they need to interact using English.

5.5.3.6. Brief Overview of the Education System of Sri Lanka

Education is compulsory for all children between the ages of 5 and 13. Students are encouraged to attend school, which is free and funded by the state. The government provides free textbooks to all students starting at grade 1 to 13. Uniforms which were also freely distributed to all students had been subsidized to only low income, deserving students.

Literacy rates and educational attainment levels rose steadily after Sri Lanka became an independent nation in 1948 and today the youth literacy rate stands at 97%. The government gives high priority to improving the national education system and access to education. The medium of language could be Sinhala, Tamil or English. English is taught as a second language. Students sit the G.C.E O/L at the end of 11 years of formal education and G.C.E. A/L examinations at the end of 13 years. (Sri Lanka Fulbright Commission). The students attending the university level courses are exposed to the English language from an early age; as they learn English from grade 3 (or even younger depending on their parents' preferences).

5.5.3.7. The Sri Lankan English L2 community

There are two L2 groups that can be influential towards integrative motivation. The fluent speaker of Sri Lankan English is a product of the legacy of the old colonial language education policies set by the British. English education was restricted to a small group of students coming from affluent families, which

made English into a language of the elite by the end of the colonial era. The English speaking elite group in Sri Lanka comprises of those who have a good command of English and in most cases have learnt it as their first language. The question of the 'native speaker' (NS) versus the nonnative speaker (NNS) arises here. As this study does not discuss the legality of the term, this study categorizes people who had learnt to speak English starting from infancy and adolescence and comfortably use the language for their daily chores. Pennycook's (2012) defines the competent speakers as "People who have grown up with a language and used it widely in many domains, further usually have a facility with that language allows them to draw on a diversity of idioms and phrases that are interlinked with particular cultural contexts with which a language may be associated" (p. 84).

5.5.3.8. 'Native' L2 Community

The 'Native' speakers of the L2 are ideally either the British or the Americans in the case of English. As English is the language of international importance more students are now motivated towards learning English to become a part of the international or globalized world. As access to media such as movies, TV shows and programs are available through the internet and cable TV, students are exposed to the larger L2.

There seems to have been a shift from the formerly believed desire to integrate to the elite Sri Lankan English L2 group, to that of a larger community, where English is more so the pathway to academic and financial success. In her study Fernando (2005) mentions that a 92% of the students in her study had indicated that English was need for the sake of better employment and it is important to learn it because of its international posture. English seems to be currently shifting form being the language of the elite to the language of international understanding and development; the language of knowledge and technology.

The term Singlish is used to refer to the Sri Lankan English spoken within the country but it does not mark itself as a national language or does not establish a national identity (Gunasekera, 2005) as it is the language used by a minute section of the society and is not codified, but only used orally. Gunasekera says that Sri Lankans are reluctant to claim this as a variety. Sri Lankan variety of English is generally compared with British English and great amount of pains are taken to make sure that the Sri Lankan users of English live up to Received Pronunciation (RP) standards.

5.5.3.9. Problem of Finding Standard L2

The reality that has been encountered in the English language teaching domain today is that no longer it can be claimed that there is a single form of English which could be adopted as the universal standard; instead there are many standards, all equally correct and acceptable. One is obliged to talk about Englishes, not English.

The multiplicity of standard forms of English is a formidable problem for the practical teacher in the language classroom. In Sri Lanka where English has been taught as a second language at all levels from the primary to the tertiary it cannot be obviously cannot conveyed to Sri Lankan pupils that unlike in the past they have to believe that there are many acceptable standard Englishes, not just one and they must learn the variety of English that is the most appropriate one for them. Such advice may be enlightening to people who already know their English quite well. Where learners are concerned, it is teachers who must deal with the problem of "standard" in terms of which they may arbitrate on matters of linguistic acceptability/correctness.

This is where "the importance of advocating a standard for the language" comes. In fact, the question regarding a suitable standard for Sri Lankan to adopt in teaching English as a second

language is in the process of being settled by local scholars in a context where the "many Englishes" idea is accommodated. This means that a standard Sri Lankan variety of English is being identified. However, there is still a lot of uncertainty, controversy and unfinished work surrounding the subject, which is naturally likely to put off those who, in any case, have not taken kindly to what appear to be deviations from the "standard English" of yesteryear.

It is well known that the English language has never had anything like the academie francaise of France, i.e. a central authority invested with the power of regulating its use. Nevertheless, over the last two hundred years or so of its roughly 1500 year history to date the two predominant varieties – British English and American English – have provided models of accuracy or standards against which to judge the acceptability of the language in use. Although these two major English dialects have existed as two distinct standards, the divergences between them in terms of grammar and vocabulary are minimal; even the differences in spelling and pronunciation (which are more readily noted) are never so wide as to render them mutually incomprehensible in the least. In effect, they represent nearly identical models of correctness.

However, with the recent emergence of English as the global medium of science, technology, industry, trade, culture, computer, communications, etc the function of serving as a measure of authenticity is being rapidly decentralized away from the native British and American standards to peripheral non-native forms of English such as Canadian, Caribbean and Indian. In other words, there is a growing tendency among users of English as a foreign or second language in different regions around the globe to consider the varieties of English evolving in their own sociocultural contexts to be as "respectable" as, and, for their particular purposes, even more effective and efficient than, Standard American or British English.

Consequently, it is difficult today to talk about one single authoritative form of English. Rather it is the case that there are a number of Standard "Englishes" - a notion that could be reprehensible to some of us who were educated when the English we were taught was securely bound to the flagship of Standard British English (or whatever was locally supposed to constitute it) and characteristic deviations from "the norm" among the local users of the language, whether they resulted from an imperfect mastery of the standard or from natural sociolinguistic causes, were rightly or wrongly outlawed as erroneous forms, or as "Ceylonisms".

While the persistent conservative standpoint is understandable, the global trend appears to be an accommodating attitude towards the phenomenon of a plurality of Standard Englishes. In terms of this tendency which may, in fact, be seen at one level as a manifestation in the field of language of a certain desire amongst previously colonized peoples for emancipation from lingering Western dominance, some of us in Sri Lanka too might feel justified in trying to adopt a Standard English of our own. If what could be identified as the local educated variety of English is to be accepted as our autonomous model, this must be done in such a way as not to depress even further the already low levels of competence in English among our students.

It is even possible to imagine a worse scenario than the mere decline of proficiency levels: the threatened extinction in Sri Lanka of English as known today, or its final degeneration into an autonomous tongue, a creole perhaps, alienated from the rest of the world! (Wasala, 2010) However, where English is concerned, such fears may be baseless because the centrifugal movement towards diversity is being countered by an opposite movement towards uniformity in the context of easy international communication and the virtual obliteration of national borders due to globalization .

David Graddol writes in his The Future of English? (London: British Council, 1997) "The widespread use of English as a language of wider communication will continue to exert pressure towards global uniformity as well as give rise to anxieties about 'declining' standards, language change and the loss of geolinguistic diversity. But as English shifts from foreign-language to second- language status for an increasing number of people, we can also expect to see English develop a larger number of local varieties" (Graddol, 1997, p.56).

In the same context Graddol attributes these opposite strains that English is presently undergoing to the fact that "… English has two main functions in the world: it provides a vehicular language for international communication and it forms the basis for constructing cultural identities…". The former pushes towards uniformity, intelligibility and common standards, whereas the latter tends to lead towards fragmentation through the creation of local forms and hybrid varieties.

However, there is no evidence to suggest that English is in any danger of breaking up into an infinity of mutually unintelligible dialects. The diversity of varieties of English is nothing new after all. Different brands of English have always existed. What is new is that with the unprecedented expansion of its adoption in every part of the world this plurality of standard forms of English has become more evident than before.

The best future we may perhaps extrapolate for English from the current trends is that, notwithstanding the localizing movements leading to "polycentrism" (i.e. a number of standard forms), the momentum towards global uniformity will prevail and that, as a result, "a supranational" (Graddol's phrase) will emerge, transcending all these competing "native" and regional varieties. Strevens (1992), quoted by Graddol, speculates that the ELT industry will play a significant role in maintaining such an international standard for both communication and

teaching purposes. The prevailing tendency though is towards the recognition of non-native regional models.

The replacement of what once enjoyed a monolithic status as the correct form of English with a regional variety will obviously have important implications for ELT activity as well as international communication. While lack of uniformity could hinder easy exchange of information, it may also pose problems for ELT practitioners in the matter of designing curricula and compiling teaching materials. Nevertheless, it is believed (Wasala, 2010) that the current advocacy of a standard Sri Lankan variety of English for teaching will not lead to such a complete break with the native varieties of English,(especially British and American, however protean and elusive to boot these themselves may be) as to hamper our communication with the outside world. Curriculum designing, material preparation, and other pedagogical problems will not be insurmountable obstacles either.

Probably a major reason for championing a local brand of English in our country is the recognition of the changed image and function of English as opposed to its past. Under the British, it was the language of administration and business, associated with elitism and power, and the colonialists restricted its availability to a subservient minority for their own purposes. Even for most of the half century of independence since 1948 English has been almost exclusively the prerogative of the power-wielding national bourgeoisie. As a result of the spirit of resurgent nationalism which swept the country in the wake of Independence (and which culminated in the 1956 political changes), English was given a back seat in the national consciousness, but this was temporary. Even during this time, Sri Lanka's educational policy makers were not oblivious of the importance of English for the development of the country through education. A programme was implemented to teach English as a second language to all school children irrespective of their social class.

Education through the medium of national languages began to be available to far larger numbers of students than education through the medium of English ever was under colonial rule. This immensely benefited many children of the dispossessed classes who were previously denied that opportunity. A rapid expansion of mother tongue education happened broadly between the 1960's and 1980's during which period English education was virtually downgraded. The reality today is that English is being restored to its position of prominence in all important spheres – education, economic development, communication, business, industry, etc. Most of all, there is a widespread reawakening to the immense significance of English in the field of education.

The vast majority of those who learn English intend to use it as a second language, especially in education and work. First language English is still confined to a small percentage of the population. Therefore English is mainly important for us as a second language.

Local academics in the field generally assume that we have a distinctly identifiable variety of English with its own characteristic pronunciation, vocabulary and idiom. However, as outlined in The Oxford Companion to the English Language (ed. Tom McArthur, 1992), Sri Lankan English "… is not itself a monolithic system; it consists of a range of subvarieties based on proficiency in it and the users' language background. It is in fact a subvariety of South Asian English similar to Indian English with which it shares many features…"

Out of this range of subvarieties the form of English that is normally used by educated Sri Lankans is the one that can be described as Standard Sri Lankan English, which is the variety generally accepted as correct. It is believed (Wasala, 2010) that the educated variety of Sri Lankan English derives from what used to be regarded as Standard British English. The reason is that the British have dominated general education in Sri Lanka

including the teaching of English during most of our two hundred year association with them. Particularly in educated English medium discourse we used to believe that we were following the British standard. Even our conscious accommodation of the other major national standard – the American variety – began relatively recently. Out of all major forms of English, it is "British" English that is most readily intelligible to us in its spoken and written forms. The other varieties are comprehensible to us to the extent that they resemble the (assumed) standard British model.

5.5.3.9.1. Pronunciation (RP) Standards.

The "British" habit is so ingrained in us, at least in some of us, that we should be excused if we appear to cling on to a so-called British Standard that is being debunked, and exorcised by modern linguists. Yet, it is believed that this British connection is an essential link between the Sri Lankan variety that is being advocated, and the global English that is probably emerging in the world at large (Wasala, 2010).

In this context, the usual confusion between standard and accent must be resolved. The standard form of a language is the form that enjoys the greatest prestige in educational and official contexts, in the media, and in writing systems; accent usually refers to features of pronunciation that reveal a speaker's regional or social background. There was a time when Standard British English was identified with RP (Received Pronunciation) among native British speakers. Today this is no longer the case. Standard English is now spoken with a variety of accents. The "Standard" is maintained more in grammar and vocabulary (not without occasional lapses) than in pronunciation. Even in Britain, only about 3% of the population are said to speak RP.

RP could never be a model for ELT purposes. Perhaps it never was. Naturally, as speakers of native languages whose sound systems are significantly different from each other as well

as from English, one cannot pronounce English the way either the native or other non-native speakers of the language do unless we undergo special training to do so. One must adopt one's own Sri Lankan accent, which itself is heterogeneous on account of the diversity of the mother tongue backgrounds within Sri Lanka. Since the time Sri Lankans started learning English in a local context they have always been using their characteristic accents, because they cannot acquire any other accent in their specific circumstances: their teachers usually share the same mother tongues; they start learning English as a second language only after they have mastered the sound system of their native language, and so on. Of course, there are a few who try to put on a "posh" accent, which is nothing but a ludicrous attempt to improvise what they imagine to be a "native-speaker-like" pronunciation.

Many foreigners would say that our mastery of English grammar and vocabulary is excellent, but that our pronunciation is not quite so good. This is perhaps not a fair assessment. Non-native speakers of a language can rarely achieve native-speaker pronunciation unless specially trained. Most English speech sounds are new to us; some of our own sounds are not even remotely identical with them. Where a competent teacher's guidance is not available for the correct production of authentic English sounds, second language learners tend to substitute approximate native (i.e. mother tongue) equivalents for them.

English pronunciation can be problematic for our students for two basic reasons among others: the first is the novelty of certain English phonemes; the second, the far more difficult but also more significant problem concerns their lack of familiarity with the syllable stress and intonation patterns of English. In English it is important to stress the correct syllables to convey meaning. We do not have this feature in Sinhala, and when we speak English, our delivery is a flat even flow of speech without

the correct pattern of stresses that a native speaker of English would generally produce.

Foreigners will find it difficult to understand our English speech if we fail to produce reasonably authentic English sounds and stress patterns. Since we learn English for international/global communication as a major aim of our effort, our commitment to a totally "Sri Lankan" model of English should not be at the expense of mutual intelligibility with other varieties of English, not only at the level of grammar and vocabulary, but also at the level of accent ("accent" here is intentionally simplified to mean characteristic features of pronunciation that signal the second language speakers' mother tongue background).

The target need not be a British or American accent, but a natural Sri Lankan pronunciation approximating the normal or neutral English pronunciation we hear around the world. The two major "native" varieties of English (British and American) which are really merging into each other, are closer to this nascent form of "global English" than any other manifestation of English. We need not bother about being able to copy a supposed native-speaker pronunciation; but we should aim at the mastery of basic phonemic distinctions and stress patterns, which are likely to cause us trouble as non-native speakers of English, but which are essential for universal comprehensibility.

The pronunciation of educated Sri Lankan speakers of English is yet to be described, and pronouncing dictionaries compiled by researchers; adequate linguistic corpora must be put together to define and describe the "educated Sri Lankan variety of English"; reference books must be written to guide teachers and students and language teaching materials have to be produced, too.

These standards are sometimes even used to demarcate the difference between a person who had learnt the language from infancy and a person who had learnt it as adults. However

linguists in Sri Lanka are trying to carve a niche in the modern world and in the Sri Lankan consciousness towards accepting a Standard Sri Lankan English.

In defining the L2 ideal self, Dönoted that while integrative motivation though a governing factor in motivating students in a multicultural context, it cannot be applied across context as in an EFL context or in an ESL context where English may not be the L1 of the majority of speakers. If the students desire to integrate in to an L2 culture and group, the grey area as to what is to be considered the L2 culture in Sri Lanka; where it could be the native speakers of English, speakers of 'Standard Sri Lankan English' or the group of English educated elite. This poses most suitable to measure motivation towards L2 learning among the students of Sri Lanka. It looks at L2 community as a larger body of speakers of English as an international language. It measures not only the integrative elements of motivation but also other important elements as the L2 identity and situated learning.

Language is a powerful tool, and English being associated with the former colonial powers has had a pervasive influence on the educational system in Sri Lanka, resulting in predominantly negative socio-political consequences due to some questionable policies implemented subsequently. The sociological factors that affected ELT are closely related to the social value placed on English as the language of 'power' as a result of the three tiered educational system implemented during British rule where English Medium fee-levying schools were inaccessible to students who came from poor economic backgrounds. This ultimately resulted in a 'hatred' developed towards English, which was seen to have been used as a 'kaduwa' to undercut the opportunities of rural children (Kandiah, 1984). This attitude created a kind of psychological barrier or inhibition among the students, obstructive their learning of English in later years. However, later, as a result of the demands of nationalistic movements, vernacular languages were made the medium of instruction in schools later.

In this context, the hegemonic status of English declined and the demand for English teachers decreased (Kandiah, 1984). Yet, English continued to be retained in trade and commerce in Sri Lanka as a modern nation. Hence, whatever the official planning espoused by the State to maintain indigenous languages, 'invisible planning' continued to maintain English as the language of power and wealth (Raheem & Ratwatte, 2004). However, today, in the globalized context of the 21st century, English is not considered the 'property' of one nation with many 'Englishes' spoken over the world (Kachru, 1986). It is considered more as a vital "Basic Life Skill" than a second/ foreign language, and its necessity, as a lingua franca, is felt in every sphere of Sri Lankan society irrespective of social, economic and political differences. Thus, it is no longer considered to be a 'weapon' by non-elite groups (Samarakkody, 2000).

The reality that we encounter in the English language teaching domain today is that we no longer can claim that there is a single form of English which we could adopt as the universal standard; instead we have many standards, all equally correct and acceptable. We are obliged to talk about Englishes, not English. The multiplicity of standard forms of English is a formidable problem for the practical teacher in the language classroom. In Sri Lanka where we teach English as a second language at all levels from the primary to the tertiary we obviously cannot tell our pupils, “Unlike in the past we now believe that there are many acceptable standard Englishes, not just one. You must learn the variety of English that is the most appropriate one for you”. Such advice may be enlightening to people who already know their English quite well. Where learners are concerned, it is teachers who must deal with the problem of “standard” in terms of which they may arbitrate on matters of linguistic acceptability/ correctness.

This is where “the importance of advocating a standard for the language” comes. In fact, the question regarding a

suitable standard for us to adopt in teaching English as a second language is in the process of being settled by local scholars in a context where the "many Englishes" idea is accommodated. This means that a standard Sri Lankan variety of English is being identified. However, there is still a lot of uncertainty, controversy and unfinished work surrounding the subject, which is naturally likely to put off those who, in any case, have not taken kindly to what appear to be deviations from the "standard English" of yesteryear.

It is a widely held perception that English Language Teaching (ELT) in Sri Lanka is a failure. Although several implementations were made in recent years to remedy the issues pertaining to English language teaching and learning, achieving the expected objectives was a failure (Gunawardana and Karunarathana, 2017). Teachers of English being the most important stakeholders in English language teaching, their contribution to these failures are significant. Out of several reasons it is apparent that teachers' skills, professional knowledge, perceptions and pedagogic practice all contribute to the failure in ELT. Therefore, it is of vital importance that teachers should be equipped with innovative pedagogic skills deviating from traditional in – service training programs. An independent method which undoubtedly contributes to the improvement of teaching, and professional development is carrying out 'research', where teachers experiment and reflect on the problem, reason and solutions.

5.5.4. Teaching and Learning English in the Arabic-Speaking World

Since 1299 up to 1923, the Arab world was ruled, under the name of Islam, by the Ottoman Caliphs. For some that kind of governance was an extension of the ancient Islamic ruling regime which represented legitimacy. Therefore, the Western

support to overthrow the Caliphate during the First World War was believed by some as a conspiracy and a crime. In such instances and within such an understanding, speaking English or learning English by Arab Muslims in the Arab world had been, at times, viewed with dismay. In the early days of the Arab Modern history –the years of independence 1923-1970, speaking of English as a subject matter in schools was a big challenge1. The fact that English language has remained in most Arab countries as a Foreign not a second language is a good enough example to prove such alienation. Politically, The English language had been associated with the ENGLISH (British) and/or the Americans and neither had enjoyed a high acceptance amongst the Arab Muslim societies.

However, in the years that followed the Arab independence and the downfall of the Caliphate, many Arab countries have allied with the West, particularly Britain and the US for political, military, economic support or for investment and development partnership. In many such countries (the Gulf States, Jordan, Iraq etc.), As a consequence, English language has enjoyed an important status within the societies. It became the language of teaching and instruction in many local universities – especially in medicine, Engineering, Business and Science, the language of commerce and trade, as well. It also became the language of the educated and elites. In some countries, English has become a number one requirement for securing a job. Furthermore, in some public educational systems (ex. Jordan) where English language was a subject taught in schools starting with grade five for the fear of negatively affecting the child's identity and patriotism (see Lenneberg (1967), Lambert (1977) and most recently Shohamy 2006), it has recently become a major topic in schools starting with grade one.

The teaching of English as a Foreign/ Second language (TEFL and TESOL) has blossomed over the past four to five decades in several Arab States. TESOL Arabia is just an emblem

of the status that English language has achieved in the social, business and educational arenas in the Arab World. The so many AMIDEAST offices and ESL Centers open in Arab countries are also another evidence of the important status of English in these countries2

Throughout this history of prosperity, English Language teaching in the Arab World has passed through ups and downs due to the inflectional attitudes people have shared vis-à-vis foreign language education. Such attitudes have been generally affected by theories of international acceptance that had some little fact and a lot of fallacy. The power of language to reflect culture and to influence thinking was first proposed by Sapir and Whorf. Their hypothesis stated that the way we think and view the world is determined by our language. Therefore, language and cultural heritage have been hot issue discussed at large by many researchers over years (see for example Claire Kramsch (1998) and Michael Byram, Carol Morgan and Colleagues (1994). Hence, the fear of the negative cultural influence on the Arab learners' identity and personality was an issue to consider when planning ESL education in the Arab World. There were times when educators have considered some sort of scientific English or limited-access English to avoid language influence and cultural dominance. There were times also when some educators in the Arab World have thought of ESP and home-made English curricula.

Al Rabai (2014) believes that the time for arguing for or against foreign language teaching has long passed. Foreign language teaching has become the norm the world over. The advantages in human richness and openness that bilingualism/ multilingualism has brought to people around the globe are too many to be touched at in such a short paper. It has been proved that authenticity is a major criterion for language acquisition, teaching and learning. As such, it is pointless to argue that a language can be taught stripped of its cultural heritage. There is

no such a teaching method that can be referred to as "skimmed language" teaching method. Consequently, accepting the fact that languages come with their cultures into our ESL/EFL classrooms is a common place notion. Subsequently, the idea of teaching authentic English in ESL classes may constitute a problem for many radical Muslim educators and decision makers. Authentic material and authentic language use might mean for them more negative cultural influence or Westernization.

This fear of cultural influence and Westernization is probably finding a very suitable flora in the new Arabic politics that has come as a byproduct of the so-called Arab-Spring. The past few decades of tolerance towards English Language, the obvious understanding of the importance of English as the Lingua franca, the interest in learning English for Specific purposes, the interest in learning a language for life, this is probably going to change soon.

If some narrow-minded, fundamental figures may make their way to the ruling chairs in some Arab Countries as a result of the current political chaos, ESL and the general attitude towards foreign language teaching will definitely witness a great decline. Hence, the writer projects that the status of English in the Arab World is endangered. It is a warning that if English is to survive in the Post-Arab Spring World, not as a lingua franca but simply a window for intercultural understanding or even as simple as a foreign language for personal learning interest, it probably has to grow a beard!

5.5.4.1. The statuesque English Learning

It shall be argued below that the Post Arab-Spring Ruling forces, mostly Islamic Fundamentalists of MB (Muslim Brotherhood) ideology, may interfere with the English language Teaching policies and plans in their countries in different ways. They may ban the teaching of English or any other foreign

language in schools altogether on the assumption that our Arabic Islamic language is good enough for everything. As well, and since most of the new rulers of the Arab Spring are from the less fortunate masses, they, in an attempt to please the masses who for bad economic and social barriers were deprived of good English language education, may opt for such a decision. English language mastery has always been associated with social-economic status in the Arab world. The better off a person status and finance, the better his opportunity would be to join some private and advanced schools where English language is emphasized. This has also been directly related to the parents' education level, the income, the neighborhood and the communicative social needs.

On the other hand, English language might be viewed with the same stance as Arabic is in the West. In other words, the new dogmatic rulers might take a decision to coin English with Christianity and Western invasion and Western cultural dominance as Arabic is coined with Islam and terror. If this attitude may prevail, the English language education could probably be abandoned.

As well, one should not underestimate the zeal for power. It is a well-known fact that the ones who get to the ruling office are not very much willing to step down, at least in the Arab part of the world. Therefore, it has been noticed that throughout history, the leader who wanted to have more dominating power over his people, was the one who would speak with the masses tongue; i.e. the local dialect of the general masses. Such was the approach of Nasser, Ghadaffi and many others. The language of the Masses is important for the ruler's status because it gives him two valuable assets: he will appear in the people eye as more belonging, more patriotic – more one of them, and he will also be more at ease in using religious terms and Quranic Verses to deploy more emotional impact on his people. Some Arab leaders used to speak in Arabic in all domains and circumstances although they had a good command of English just for getting the emotional support

of the uneducated Masses. If this becomes a common practice, would English then still find a paved road to the public schools? Moreover, and in some extreme case, such fanatic leaders may consider a "fatwa" against using or speaking any language rather than Arabic. The Islamic dogmatic background of the new rulers and their political belonging may oblige them to follow one of the assumptions presented above as a means of staying tuned with their ideological commitment. One should take into account that the ruling post Arab-Spring powers are mainly BMs (Brother Muslims)3 In a less pessimistic perspective, one can assume that English language classes in schools might be reduced in number or a decision may be taken to delay the teaching of English until grade five so that the importance of English goes back to the way it used to be more than fifty years ago: simply a foreign language taught as a subject matter.

Some writers have already looked into these different possibilities although at a limited-research-scale only. Their findings are supportive of the current paper's assertion. For example, Lewko (2012) in his master thesis entitled: Linguistic Projection and the Ownership of English: Solidarity and Power with the English Language in Egypt, tries to find possible answers for a question posed in his study about the future use of English in Egypt after the 2011 revolution. Although his data is dependent on a limited number of interviews, yet one can safely conclude that there are some pessimistic views about the future of English. He says:

"Amal noted that a politician advocated banning English from Egyptians schools, although the reactions she saw on social networks to this were very negative. Nada, Nagwa, and Ahmed saw a reduction of the use of English on the Internet. Nagwa, Heba, and Ahmed noted how Arabic is "connecting" Egyptians with each other in a post-revolution Egypt. Ahmed said, "So you're trying to reach a wider audience, so you're going to more, um, kind of use terms and concepts, and even topics that we're

not used to talking about in Arabic, to talking about them in Arabic"(p.98).

In his thesis, Lewko brings about very interesting topics related to language identity and language ownership. He concludes: "The overall view presented here is that English will continue to be an important linguistic tool, but Arabic will take a greater role in public discourse." (p.98). Lewko ends up his discussion of language and power in post-revolution Egypt by saying:

"It is possible that the renewed use of Arabic after the Egyptian revolution, particularly online, may influence English in this way. English may find renewed competition in Arabic as Arabic is used to include as many Egyptians as possible to new political dialogue and social movements. While it is unlikely that this will cause English to be unimportant, it may cause Egyptians to question why English is important, and what role should English play in a post-revolution Egypt. This could lead to a revision in English's perceived relationship with social class. Of course, politics in Egypt may have very surprising consequences to come for both languages" (p.118).

In his revolutionary article entitled: "TESOL in a Time of Terror: towards an Islamic perspective on Linguistics" Karmani (from the University of Sharjah, UAE) poses some very important questions concerning the role of ESL and ESL teachers in a War Against Terror. He says in his brief introduction: "(is) TESOL another strategic component in the struggle for hearts, minds, and tongues in the so-called war against terror?" or "is the teaching of English, as Edge (2003) has suggested, now a crucial ingredient of the pacifying process once the tanks, troops, and B-52 bombers have retreated?". Karmani further questions our role as TSOL teachers: "Does perhaps our role as teachers of the "language of the conqueror" (Templer, 2003) implicate us as unwitting de-Islamizing agents in a U.S.-led campaign to "rid the

world of evil" (National Security Strategy of the United States of America, 2002, p. 5)?

Many such questions and presuppositions are evoked in this article by Karmani –the founder of TESOL islamia (www.tesolislamia.org). And although not many answers are provided, the writer ends up confessing that English and Islam are such two Big components to be covered in an article. He quotes Harris (1992) that "the names English and Islam, whatever else they may be, are names of two very big battalions when it comes to the current international power struggle for control of the Middle East" (p. 90). In such a citation, Karmani probably wanted to indicate that the real focus of today's TESOL should shift to the teaching of English as way of life not just as a language or a tool. He is latter cited saying clearly that "we as language teachers might begin to explore the effects of political interference in Arab-Muslim curricula," and he goes on, "Teachers and students in the region should adopt critical educational practices that connect language acquisition to the purposes, contexts, and effects of communicating in English."

Be it political dominance or economy, it remains true that English is engulfed in a huge cloud of ambiguity in the Arab World and ESL teachers, being just a minority as they are, may never have the power to defend the language that the teach in a place where doubts and uncertainties are increasing daily. Hence, I believe that with more focus on Islam from the New Arab Rulers-as the scenario is expected- less focus shall probably be on English. New Arab Rulers will definitely try their utmost to connect and stretch in order to build their dream of a United Islamic caliphate6 (see the Muslim Brothers Doctrine at their official site http://www.ikhwanweb.com/). English will enjoy the least of their interest, if any at all.

Rahman (2005) poses so many interesting views of the relationship that governs Muslims and English in Asia. Although

Rahman talks mainly about the India-Pakistan example- which of course is a good representation of English through many south Asian countries (the Philippines, Singapore, Afghanistan etc.), there are so many similarities with English and Arab Muslims. In some explanation of one instance which he called "assimilation" as a mode of acceptance to English language in India and other countries, the writer shows how the Imperial British Politicians were so actively involved in creating a social class of British (English)-educated people who would make the ruling of the country much more easier for the British. He is citing Macaulay (1835) as saying: " We must at present do our best to form a (social) class who may be interpreters between us and the millions we govern; a class of persons, Indian in blood and colour, but English in taste, in opinion, in morals and in intellect." (p.5).

This is a clear example of a situation that has led to assimilation of English within some social classes in the Arab World also. The class of opportunists who have made important gains either by working in higher offices and closer to the ruling agents or by travelling and having a distinguished education in Britain as early as the thirties and forties of the 20th. Century. One must admit, however, that although this particular class of people did gain a lot of advantages from the occupying power, many have served their countries before and after independence in the best possible manner. Hence, the writer admits no direct association or link between bilingualism and lack of patriotism or loyalty.

Rahman, on a different stand, presents examples of an opposing reaction to English in India and in Pakistan. He talks of a majority who, even without the need of fatwa, felt a rejection to the language of the British Conqueror. He says that the "ordinary Muslims … instinctively felt that English … threaten their worldview." And he claims that "This resistance and rejection still characterizes the Islamic conservatives." (p. 6). This seems to be so true of many Muslim undereducated or non-educated

Arabs who for no conceivable reason believe that English (and any different language or culture) is a threat to their faith and way of life.

Rahman's article also makes reference to an historical source that sheds light on a very important point which could actually clarify some of the points mentioned earlier in this paper: namely the Ottomans' documents. He cites Bernard Lewis (1982) in looking at Turkish History as saying, "During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, Ottoman chronicles devote … not a great deal to Europe. The various European nations are still referred to invariably as 'the English infidels," "the French infidels etc.," (p.5). This evidence can shed more light on the fear and hostility that the West sometimes associates with Islam in general regardless of the so many changes in attitude and behavior among Muslims towards the West.

Mallah8 (2000) in her article on "English in an Arabic Environment: Current Attitudes to English among Kuwait University Students," uses as a major assumption the claim that Kuwaiti undergraduate students have a positive attitude towards English and English native speakers. In her concluding statement, she says:

"it was found that the more one is exposed to the English language, through being in an English medium college, visiting and staying in an English-speaking country or watching English programs on TV, and the more one needs the English language either for present studies or for future career, the more one appreciates English and reveals positiveness towards the language." (p.41).

Such is the case of English for academic and work purposes in most Arab countries. It has been shown in several similar research efforts that English is highly valued amongst the educated people for several reasons starting with the language aesthetic values and culture and going up to cover a much

wider perspective of advantages. In short, the more utility exists in learning the language, the more motivated students are in learning and the softer or milder their attitude is, in general, to the language culture and native speakers.

In a remarkable linguistic and humanistic exchange of emails between Karmani and Pennycook, a breath-taking debate is presented on the relationship between English and Islam. The posed questions and the answers don't only reflect the fact that both writers enjoy a very sophisticated level of understanding of the fallacies and facts in as much as the struggle between English and Islam is concerned, but both writes do seem to unintentionally symbolize the two major superpowers in todays' war against terror: namely the power of accusation and that of denial. In some ironic stances, two contradicting views are placed on the table and making a choice was almost as confessing an underlying hatred. For instance, in attempting an answer to the question: was English one of the major causes of the success of the 9/11 attacks? In other words, had the hijackers not known English very well, would the attacks have been possible? The direct answer is of course NO. It is true that Fluency in English provided the attackers a level of ease in committing their crime. Now, in response, are we with more English in Muslim schools or Less English? Similarly, are we with more Islamic teaching (Madrassa) in Pakistan and More Religion and Arabic classes in the Arab schools or with less religious or native language concentration? These are not ideas for discussion anymore? With some radical Muslim leaders as heads of states, some of these assumptions may soon become decisions that will affect the educational scene in some Arab countries.

This exchange of ideas between the two imminent specialists could have been more harmonized had they attempted to subdue the tension over English versus Islam and focused more on the implications of 9/11 on the future of English teaching in the Arab/Muslim world. One expected retaliation

of the 9/11 accusations could probably take the form of taking more serious action against the teaching of English in the Arab World. This latter view is usually associated with regimes that find more security in returning to Arabic rhetoric and Islamic fundamental doctrines to defend themselves against terror-Islam related accusations; the case that may pop to the surface in the post Arab Spring governments.

Derin & Ece (2009)10 shed some light on the effect of English language teaching on students' identity in Turkey. They carried out a research to investigate the ESL learners' as well as teachers' views of the impact of English on the Turkish, Muslim identity of the learners. Although their study has depended on probably a limited sample, it reviled a very interesting point mentioned in the last chapter of the study. The writers, in summarizing their findings, say, " the participants seemed to be well aware of the presence of their multiple identities, but they all privileged their Turkish and Muslim identities over the Western way of existence presented during English-Language courses." (p 30).

The writer believes that the question of the relationship between language and identity should possibly be totally neglected, especially when touching on the teaching of a foreign language or a second language within the first language premises, as is the case of English in Turkey. It is well-established that language may have a slight component in shaping the child identity if acquired during early childhood. However, at later stages, such an impact starts diminishing as other factors in building the child identity came into the play field such as religion, home-bringing, social impact, friends etc. It is probably safe to assume that language shows or reveals the persons' identity rather than attributes to the building up of that identity.

Therefore, it is more fathomable to suggest that English as a foreign language in the Muslim world is not an actual threat

to the child identity as much as it is a tool to expand his vision and image of the world. Once a learner is equipped with more tools, his/her ability to see the word from different perspectives becomes stronger and more developed. If identity is belonging and loyalty, then it is much harder to speculate where and when our second/foreign languages can change our identities. However, if it is a matter of adding traits to a well-established identity, as in the Turkish example in the current study, the writer believes that ESL plays a very important role in shaping the way a learner sees, feels and understands things. This, from the writer's own experience as a foreign language learner, is an asset not a hindrance and henceforth doesn't constitute a reason for taking a stance against English. The Turkish example is not the only on in the Middle East where English is widely used and respected as a foreign language. Jordan, the Gulf States, Saudi Arabia and Egypt are just a few examples of countries that have long survived this whole dilemma of ESL and identity. In many such countries, the Education Policy makers have decided to start English from Kindergarten as opposed to old practices where English was taught starting with fifth and sixth grades. The real issue facing Arab Muslim students is not the continuation of the state of affairs in as much as English teaching is concerned; it is the fear that some negative consequences might occur if a decision is to be taken with respect to the teaching of English to young Muslim Kids in the Arab countries. Would the new decision makers construct their views about English based on fallacies or on facts? Are they going to give a good listening ear to research results and theories that have long proved the importance of multilingualism and bilingualism to the child/human development and success? Or they will remain adamant to change and totally convinced with stereotypes and inferiority complexities? Will they always hold the belief that English is evil? That English is associated with the Missionaries and crusaders? Similarly, and within the same logic, Are English language teachers going to be looked at as

missionaries or preachers of Christian beliefs? To what extent an English Language teacher (Christian or Muslim) can be neutral in teaching English?

Baurain (2007)11 tried to respond to some of these worries. In defining the ESL teacher's role, he emphasized that English language Christian teachers should be wary of the negative impact that may result when involving the personal teacher's beliefs, especially that of bearing witness, and the role of teaching the foreign language to non-Christian students. Baurain cites very good examples from Edge (1996, 2003), Pennycook & Coutand Marin 2003, Pennycook & Makoni (2005) to consolidate his point of view; all citations tend to prove the that people, henceforth teachers, who believe that the have the Truth are probably more radical and less professional to teach. He uses a very strong citation from Edge (2004), "those equipped with complete certainty are frequently handicapped," and he further uses an aphorism by Volaire cited in Edge (2004), "Doubt is not a pleasant condition, but certainty is absurd." (p.204).

Baurain is responding to a major critique that has been launched against English, English Christian Teachers and Schools and ESL teachers in general. The argument presented in Baurain's paper is very profound in that it presents many instances where ESL teachers, schools and agencies have been looked at with dismay by locals from a lower class or a conservative socio-cultural background. However, one have to admit that in certain cases, such feelings of suspicion and skepticism toward English schools and English teachers was probably acceptable as when missionaries who are particularly interested in converting people or influencing peoples' beliefs have actually used the English Language teaching mask to perform their missions in the Arab World, "in order to work as a missionary in Muslim countries it is often necessary to hide one's identity. Evangelists should always have a handy, nonreligious explanation for their presence in Muslim countries," and "I could look someone in the eye and

say, 'I am an English teacher, I have a degree, and I'm here to teach." (Rick Love cited in Yeoman, 2003)12

Furthermore, the writer of this article, as an English language teacher and an ESL specialist in a Muslim world, has personally experienced some sort of alienation by the more conservative teachers, particularly teachers of Arabic language and Islamic education in several institutions that he worked for. In many such instances, he was viewed as the "westernized guy" just because he speaks English or wears a pair of jeans. In other more severe cases, some would find it too bizarre to see him pray in the break between classes; an ESL teacher, even a Muslim, can be viewed as an infidel to use the Turkish Ottoman style. Ignorance may, in various situations, mask itself with a veil; in many such cases, the veil was disguised as religion and that is where the da

English language is taught and learnt in six countries of the Middle East: Egypt, Lebanon, Palestine, Saudi Arabia, the UAE, and Oman. In addition to the cultural and local context of each chapter, a high priority is also given to the global role of English in all fields of human endeavour in these studies, as well as to the challenges of new technology in the Arab world accompanied by the high demand of English language instruction and learning.

As European powers increasingly asserted their influence over the Arab world towards the end of the eighteenth century, many in Arab countries began looking towards the West to learn more about its military, economic, and technological resurgence. Of all the Western-inspired reforms that Arab leaders were to adopt over the coming centuries in the name of social and economic modernisation, it was perhaps those related to education that were to have the most far-reaching effect. In the wake of the Allied occupation of Constantinople in 1918 and the carving up of the Ottoman Empire, education in the English-, French- and Italian-medium schools that already dominated a

number of Arabcontrolled towns and territories from Muscat to Stone Town and Cairo to Algiers, came to be complemented by tertiary institutions and universities established in the European model. Well-known examples include the transformation of the Syrian Protestant College into the American

University of Beirut towards the end of 1920, the American University in Cairo founded by protestant missionaries in 1919, and the University of Rome supervised post-secondary institutions established after the Second World War in the Italian Trust Territory of Somaliland.

The importance the colonial powers and, to an extent, Arab leaders placed on promoting Western-style education systems that offered instruction in European languages for at least that part of the local population considered necessary to act as mediators between the rulers and the ruled, was not seriously challenged with the advent of Arab independence. In fact, while countries such as Somalia and Libya did seek a policy of Arabisation across their public services and education systems, education in French and English remained as sought-after as ever, at least for the children of local elites. A similar situation was also witnessed in the Arab Gulf with the discovery and exploitation of vast oil resources that allowed for the rapid introduction of government-funded education systems including public universities where English continues to operate as the dominant medium of instruction. In short, English and, to a lesser extent, French, are still viewed by many across the Arab world as keys to modernisation and engagement with the international community.

However, despite the clear and important role English has continued to play across many of the nations of the Arab world, it does, nonetheless, pose a number of significant challenges. Many of these can be conceived of as involving reconciling post-colonial identity with the position the languages of former

colonial rulers continue to play in the academies, media, businesses, and, quite often, ministries of Arab countries. These include issues of cultural preservation and identity, access to education, employment and social mobility, the heightened risk of individuals without access to the English language becoming marginalised within their own societies, and the potential for loss of native languages and cultures.

For example, proponents of the continuing role of English within postcolonial societies such as those found across the Arab world may quote Chinua Achebe's succinct account of linguistic appropriation and transformation:

It is felt that the English language will be able to carry the weight of my African experience. But it will have to be a new English, still in full communion with its ancestral home but altered to suit its new African surrounding.

From this perspective, English is not so much a threat to a speaker's sense of cultural identity as a tool that can be employed in the assertion of that identity. On the other hand, there are those who highlight the language's potential to alienate people from their own cultures and beliefs while simultaneously defining those who have access to education and, therefore, to social, economic, and political power. With reference to the Arab world, the central role Islam and, by extension, Arabic play in the region may operate as a foil to the realisation of such eventualities.

Despite the supposed "buffer" religion may provide against the potential for cultural deracination often evident in other expanding circle countries, the very centrality of religion to life across much of the Arab world does, in itself, open many of these societies to a different, and perhaps in some ways more problematic, set of challenges.

The dominance of English in the private and public universities of many countries of the Arab world raises a number of important issues for students, instructors, and policy

makers. Among these is the possibility of incongruence between traditional Arab cultural and religious values and the Western values often assumed to be encountered when studying English. Hopkyns looks at the complicated nature of this relationship in her exploration of the effects of English as a global language on learners' sense of cultural identity in the United Arab Emirates. In examining the "two sides to the English coin", the author offers some of the many benefits and potential pitfalls associated with the language's increasing centrality to higher education in the Arab Gulf.

As Hopkyns describes, English is often employed across the Arab world as a high stakes gatekeeper of educational and social success in contexts where the language itself is not used, outside of a handful of cities, for everyday communication. In this environment, it is conceivable that students of English might find it challenging to learn and retain a language that does not have a great deal of currency beyond their classroom walls. This challenge assumes greater importance when students from predominantly Arabic-medium secondary schools enter English-medium universities. Roche, Sinha and Denman examine the nature of this challenge from the perspectives of students and their teachers in foundation programmes in two Omani universities. AlMahrooqi,

Denman and Ateeq then look at the struggles of a similar set of learners in their investigation of the factors influencing the adaptation of first-year foundation students in Oman to their new university surroundings.

Recent educational reforms in many countries of the Arab world have sought to promote learner autonomy and to make English classrooms more student-centred. However, for teachers and students often familiar with more traditionally teacher-centred classes where the learner is positioned as a passive recipient of knowledge, this transition raises a number of concerns in terms

of educational expectations, suitable teaching methods, and even appropriate forms of assessment. Elsagheer takes a broad view of the nature of these challenges in his diagnostic study of the demands of teaching and learning English in the Albaha region of Saudi Arabia. AlMohammadi then builds upon this work by focusing on one specific aspect of these challenges – the demands of mixed-abilities classes in English language teaching in Oman.

With every challenge, however, comes opportunity, and a number of contributors highlight ways in which teachers of English in the Arab world can respond to some of the many demands placed upon them by developing their professional understandings and pedagogical practices. Kay Gallagher, for example, highlights the positive impact that classroom based action research can have on the professional development of preservice teachers in the United Arab Emirates, while Al-Bulushi discusses how the use of graphic organisers in an Omani grade eight English class not only enhances learners' writing performance, but also improves theirattitudes towards the writing process.

Enhancing students' English communicative skills was one goal of Al Shabibi's examination of question types used by teachers in the Omani primary education system. Al Shabibi argues for teachers to focus on the types of questions they use to increase the amount of genuine communicative language available in the classroom. Still within the primary classroom, Al Ruqeishi looks at teacher perceptions of alternative assessment tools for grades 5-8 and finds that these have the potential to develop teachers' sense of reflection and students' awareness of their learning, even if there are some major hurdles to implementing these forms of assessment in Oman. Derbel and Al-Mohammadi then offer support for adopting an integrated skills approach to teaching English in the Arab world that incorporates strands of the four core language skills, the target culture, and the cultural backgrounds of students.

Encouraging learner autonomy is one way in which students can be empowered to develop their English-language proficiency and to eventually participate in an increasingly globalised workforce. Chirciu examines teachers' views on the value and means of promoting learner autonomy in Oman, with the conclusion that both teachers' cultural backgrounds and exposure to professional teaching discourse influence these perspectives. Chirciu and Mishra next take a broader view on learner autonomy that encompasses the ways in which it is realised in the interrelational space of the classroom. Their "crystal ball" calls attention to the complex dimensions of learner autonomy, learner-centeredness, and the nature of the teacher-learner relationship within a local Omani university. Al-Mahrooqi, Denman and Al-Maamari then examine the value of textbooks in the government school system. Their analysis of the government-produced books used in Omani public schools offers a number of suggestions for improving these books to help them more fully contribute to the development of higher levels of English language proficiency among Omani school students.

Finally, Nur's overview of the changing status of English in Sudan both explores the ways in which the language was introduced by the colonizers as a bridging language between the rulers and the ruled and, in the south, was employed in missionary schools as a tool of "enlightenment". Within this social and historical setting, Nur explores what the new policies towards English in both Sudan and newly-formed South Sudan mean for the people of these countries, and how these policies may affect social cohesion, cultural values, economic development, and interaction with the outside world in the future. A similarly broad perspective is taken by Bawazeer in her examination of issues related to the learning and teaching of English in Saudi Arabia. The questions posed by these two authors, in many ways, permeate throughout the entirety of this book, and remain ones that, to this day, elicit no easy response.

Teaching speaking skills to Arab students has always been a challenging task to EFL (English as a Foreign Language teachers because it is a foreign language. This refers to teaching of English to learners in or from countries where it has not been traditionally used (McArthur, 2005). While speaking English, Arab students encounter many difficulties. The major one is that there is very limited opportunity in the Arab countries to learn English through natural interaction in the target language (Rabab'ah, 2003). Previous studies conducted in the Arab World such as (Hamad, 2103; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Mahboob and Elyas, 2014; Alrabai, 2014 and Alrashidi1 and Phan 2015) revealed that most Arab students are not intrinsically motivated, and they lack the basic language skills that would enable them to express themselves easily in the classroom.

Over last few decades, the Arab learners have shown a keen interest in recognizing the English language as a language of common usage in business and in education, a phenomenon much supported by the Saudi government Many universities in Saudi Arabia have introduced courses in English language and literature. Students too have shown great interest in acquiring the knowledge of this language. But, despite this wide popularity and demand of English language, and a rigorous program run by the government and educational institutions, English language has not been in wide use. There are several challenges and issues that have been identified by many researchers and academicians among which include the inadequate teaching curricula, teaching methodology, lack of skilled teachers and so on or even lack of motivation. This has so far unfortunately prevented the Arab learners to have a complete input in learning the English language (L2).

Sometimes during the fifth century, the Quran that's written in Arabic introduced the Arabic language to be the language of the Muslim empire that spread around the world: Nadvi (2003) "Arabic became the official language of a world empire whose

boundaries stretched from the Oxus River in Central Asia to the Atlantic Ocean, and even northward into the Iberian Peninsula of Europe. As Islam continued to spread through the world, Arabic inherently followed."(P. 2). Arabic became prestige because of the variety of sciences that were invented by Arabs like Chemistry, Algebra and Astronomy. Things have changed today, and the language that is mostly used around the world is the English language due to the advanced technology and the political power that USA, and the English speaking countries has in the world. Hollywood movies and pop culture have a big impact in spreading English language throughout the world. Middle Eastern countries, especially gulf countries like Saudi Arabia, UAE, Kuwait and Iraq have been heavily influenced by English Language in the last few years. Since Islam has urged people to learn other nations' language for security purposes, English language has been taking big part of the Arabic speaking countries. That desire to learn other languages has increased since the second Gulf war in 2003.

Islam encouraged people to learn other languages so that they can communicate with each other and understand each other. The Quran describes the importance of other languages in the following verse: "And We did not send from a messenger except with his nation's tongue/language, to clarify/explain to them, so God misguides whom He wills/wants, and He guides whom He wills/wants, and He is the glorious/mighty, the wise/judicious." (14: 4). The prophet Mohamad also talks about the importance of learning languages of other nations: "Those who learn the language of any community they can save themselves from their mischief." (Mohamad: 1)

Because of the religious aspect toward learning other languages, and the presence of the American forces in the area, English started to be the major target language in the Arab countries after the second Gulf war in 2003, especially those who live in the Gulf region. People started learning English to

communicate with soldiers and to work as interpreters for the US army as well. Zagoul (2003) talks about this case "Language and English language spread is a case in point. The language is getting entrenched in the Arab land especially after the Second Gulf War and the defeat of Iraq, a true representative of Arabism and the use of Arabic. English is occupying more and more room in language use. It is taking more and more territory from the native language." (p. 6). After this last war on Iraq in 2003, many English words have been used by Iraqis that blended into their mother tongue language, Arabic. After 17 years of exile in the US, I went back to Iraq this past summer of 2008. I was shocked to hear new words that have never been used when I was a child living there. Some of the most common words that are used today, especially among the young generation are cool and top. They use the word cool which they pronounce it like [kul], similar to how it's used in the English language. Hence, they pronounce the word top like [tob], and they use it when they compare two things and try to evaluate one on another. For example, they would say /haða bet tob/ which means "there is no house better than this house". Before the 2003 war, this sentence used be said as /haða bet jƐmil/. Those words and many more are used now as part of Iraqi slang. These new words and terms are mostly used among the young generation. Moore (2004) talks about how new words start to be used in people's slangs. He says that words start to be used among youngsters first, and then they're carried through the new generation. "There is a general evolutionary sequence according to which basic slang terms emerge in mainstream usage. The process begins with term becoming widely used to refer to a set of values that have special appeal for a generation of adolescents and young adults." (p. 63). This to prove that there are many words we use today in Iraq borrowed from English after the British colonialism to Iraq in 1941 which my mother uses who was six years old at that time, but my grandmother, who was in her thirties during the invasion never used those words.

For Example, my mother would use the word /bu:t/ which means shoes, but my grandmother would use the old traditional word / ħı ða/ instead.

5.5.5. The Teaching of the English Language in Ethiopia

5.5.5.1. Historical Overview of English Language Teaching in Ethiopia

The introduction of English language in the education system of Ethiopia came along with the history of modern (western) schooling which dates back to 1908. The beginning of modern education in Ethiopia was characterized mainly by teaching foreign languages such as French, English and Italian. It took place with the belief that "These languages would be important to keep the country sovereign by providing the country with elites which could negotiate the interests of the country through the international tongues" (Negash, 1990) as cited in Heugh et al.(2006: 42-43).

There was severe competition among these three foreign languages which reflected the then political sphere of influence of each country on Ethiopia. Following the defeat of Italy during World War II, the Italian language was eliminated from the competition. This made French and English languages compete in schools as a language of instruction. According to Engidaye (1998:47) initially the mission schools were the pioneers in the teaching of English and French, in which "While the Roman Catholic missions were vehicles for the French language, the protestant missions (English, American, German, Swiss and Swedish) were vehicles for the English language."

The period between 1920 and mid 1930 was the important period for English to gain ground in Ethiopian Education. The main contributory factor for the triumph of English over

French was closely related with Ethiopia's struggle to regain its independence from the Italian occupation (1935-1941).

The main reasons for the reintroduction of English in the Ethiopian education system may be summarized as follows:

1. The assistance the country received from the British government in forcing out the Italian army. During the war the British had made a remarkable sacrifice to help Ethiopia fight against the occupying army (Heugh et al., 2006).
2. The administrative and financial assistance received from the British government. There was a continual effort by the British Council in the 1930's which contributed to the acceptance of English for official purposes(Brown et al,1976) cited in Yigzaw (2005).
3. The fact that most of the higher officials, in the Ministry of Education, such as Dr. Workineh Gebeyehu and Tefera Work who had English educational backgrounds in cooperation with the eighteen Indian teachers played prominent role and paved the way for displacement of French by English. (Yigzaw, 2005)

There were also other factors which necessitated using English as a language of instruction. These were:

1. Students' interest in the English language. They learned English to get jobs, to improve their living standards and to get promotions because a greater facility in English promised paying jobs and higher posts in administration (Daniel 1998 cited in Yigzaw (2005).
2. English language was also a means for access to education: Most instructors during that time were expatriates (Indians and British), and being literate in

English was mandatory in order to learn from these people.

3. Scarcity of teaching and learning materials: Ethiopian schools had scarcity of learning and teaching materials, they were obliged to import and use foreign developed English curriculum and materials, especially for high schools.

4. The assistance the country received from the British government in forcing out the Italian army: During the war the British had made a remarkable sacrifice to help Ethiopia fight against the occupying army.

5. The administrative and financial assistance received from the British government: There was a continual effort by the British Council in the 1930's which contributed to the acceptance of English for official purposes (Brown et al., 1976) cited in Yigzaw (2005: 50).

5.5.5.2. The Current Status of the English Language Teaching in Ethiopia

English is more of a foreign language in Ethiopia. It is treated as a subject for study rather than as a living language to be spoken in daily conversation. Therefore, the EFL classroom

context is very different from a natural ESL learning environment. English as a foreign language in Ethiopia, it is used dominantly for academic purposes. Nowadays not only are secondary schools and higher institutions using English as a medium of instruction but elementary schools have also added the language in their curricula to teach English as a subject starting from grade one up to grade eight in government schools. However, in some private urban based schools children are made to learn English as a school subject and to use it as a medium of instruction for some of the basic school subjects.

As stated in the 'Education and Training Policy and Its Implementation' (MoE, 2002), the reasons why English is taught as a subject from the first grade is that the language is not spoken at home and students experience the language only in school. Thus early familiarity with English helps students get enough time to develop basic skills when they advance to secondary school where the medium of instruction is English.

The teaching of English in primary first cycle (grades 1-4) is done by teachers trained at teacher training institutes (TTIs). They are trained for eight months, after completing grade 10, in the methodology of teaching the different subjects. These teachers are expected to handle self-contained classes in which they teach all subjects to one group of students.

English language teaching in primary 2nd cycle, beginning at grade 5, is conducted by teachers who study English as a major field of study or who major in an Ethiopian language and minor in English. Teachers for grades 7 and 8 are normally expected to have a diploma from a teacher training college (TTC). English for secondary school students is taught by teachers who have a university degree in English.

English is also used as a means of international communication by Ethiopians. Some federal government offices which have transactions with foreigners and foreign offices use English side by side with Amharic for written communication. Most huge business firms, banks, insurance companies, Ethiopian Airlines, and others use English as a working language (Teka,2009).

In general, the need for international use has made English language essential in Ethiopian education system. Thus, "English as a long established foreign language …has continued to be one of the languages taught. It is also used as a medium of instruction at secondary and tertiary education."(ENA for UNESCO, 2001:14)

Epilogue

From the previous chapters we understood differences and similarities between the child's acquisition of his first language, the child's acquisition of a second language, and the adult's acquisition of a second language. The infant-child acquires his first language in the most natural or least artificial manner possible. There is normally nothing in his mind to prevent him from ultimately learning a native language. On the contrary, Chomsky leans on the notion of innate ideas: the infant brain is predisposed towards the acquisition of the grammar of natural language. He makes a distinction between competence and performance. These to some extent can be equated with the dichotomy brought in by De Saussure: langue and parole.

Langue (French, meaning "language") and parole (meaning "speaking") are linguistic terms distinguished by Ferdinand de Saussure in his Course in General Linguistics. Langue encompasses the abstract, systematic rules and conventions of a signifying system; it is independent of, and pre-exists, individual users. Langue involves the principles of language, without which no meaningful utterance, "parole", would be possible. Parole refers to the concrete instances of the use of langue. This is the individual, personal phenomenon of language as a series of speech acts made by a linguistic subject. Saussure did not concern himself overly with parole; however, the structure of langue is revealed through the study of parole. The distinction is

similar to that made about language by Wilhelm von Humboldt, between energeia (active doing) and ergon (the product of that doing). Saussure drew an analogy to chess to explain the concept of langue and parole. He compared langue to the rules of chess—the norms for playing the game—and compared the moves that an individual chooses to make—the individual's preferences in playing the game—to the parole. Chomsky makes the distinction between competence and performance; he describes 'competence' as an idealized capacity that is located as a psychological or mental property or function and 'performance' as the production of actual utterances.

The learner has been exposed to the parole of the speakers the language which is outer, surface manifestations of the speech of his home and community. On the basis of his contacts with this performance the child internalizes a highly complex, abstract set of interrelated systems, minimally a phonological system, a syntactic system, and a semantic system regardless of how fragmentary, uninventive, or degenerate this corpus may be. Vygotsky has shown how the speech function and the thought function have two separate origins in the developing infant, speech having its roots in babbling and emoting through sound, and thought deriving from problem solving and the use of tools. Vygotsky concludes that apes are capable of both types of behavior, but that only human beings learn to fuse the two separate functions into a single use, i.e., that combination of vocalizing and thinking which leads to the creation of symbolic language and eventually to the formation of concepts. Vygotsky shows experimentally how the child's thinking develops from (a) an initial primitive mental organization of the environment into "heaps" or unorganized congeries through (b) several different types of thinking in complexes (still a primitive type of thinking) until it reaches in about the twelfth year of the child's life the final stage (c) where abstract concepts are understood and used.

No matter if it is difficult or easy to master a language, it is a prolonged and consistent period. Acquiring or learning a language requires much time and effort from not only the learners, but from the teachers as well. Nowadays, when English is considered as an international language, the activity of teaching and learning English as a foreign or second language is also examined and discussed widely all over the world.

In discussion about language teaching and learning, Brown (2007a) points out that, there is a depending and subordinating relationship between teaching and learning. Teaching plays roles as guiding, facilitating learning, and encouraging the learner and setting the conditions for learning. Having a good understanding of how the learner learns will help teachers determine their philosophy of education, their teaching style, approach, methods, and classroom techniques. According to Cook (2001), "the proof of teaching is in the learning", and "all successful teaching depends upon learning" (p. 9). Cook also states that there is no point in providing interesting, well prepared language lessons if students do not learn from them.

It is important for teachers and learners to understand the goal of language teaching and learning, as well as how to achieve it. It is pointed out that the goal of language teaching is to develop learners' communicative competence. As advised in Rivers (1978), "when selecting learning activities, we must always remember that our goal is for the students to be able to interact freely with others: to understand what others wish to communicate in the broadest sense, and to be able to convey to others what they themselves wish to share" (Rivers, 1978, pp. 3-4). Following this point, Liu (2003) believes that the ultimate goal of language instruction is to equip learners with the ability to use the language for their communication. This reasonably explains why the four macro language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) fall into the two categories: vocal and written communication. Listening and speaking are the most

important forms of vocal communication, whereas reading and writing are the most important forms of written communication.

According to Lochana and Deb (2006), teachers have recently realized the importance of using a student-centered approach to teaching where teachers can help students to learn the target language in context and to use it in real situations both inside and outside the language classroom. Collaborative or cooperative learning is described by Richards (2001) as a student-centered approach in which learners use cooperative activities, such as pair work or group work, to: express their viewpoints and opinions; share their ideas, information and experience; and discuss and debate with each other. Jacobs and Hall (2002) point out that, when using cooperative learning activities in language classrooms, teacher talk should be reduced and students' talk should be increased, with a focus on negotiation of meaning and a greater amount of comprehensible input. In addition, a relaxed classroom atmosphere and motivation for learning should be emphasized. Collaborative learning aims to provide learners with interactive tasks that can help them develop communicative competence (Richards, 2001).

Student-centered collaborative approaches require teachers and learners to play roles that are different from the traditional approaches. According to Brown (2007b), teachers play five main roles when using collaborative activities involving pair work and group work for students in language classrooms. Teachers should help students build up enough classroom language so that they can understand the teachers' instructions, choose group techniques appropriate for students, plan group work, monitor tasks, and help debrief students to start the activity.

Littlewood (1981) advises that, while students are involved in communicative activities such as pair work or group work, teachers should act as observers who walk around the class to give students guidance to start their discussions, give students

advice when necessary, and help them to solve disagreements within pairs or groups. However, before learner-centered activities are undertaken, teachers should ensure that all students are clear about the tasks and instructions so that the students are able to start their work independently and confidently.

Besides the teachers' roles, the learners' roles in student-centered collaborative learning approaches are described by (Breen & Candlin, 1980) as follows:

The role of learner as negotiator—between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning—emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way (p. 110).

Students' interdependence is considered important in student-centered learning approaches. Students are expected to interact with each other, rather than with teachers (Richards, 2001). To acquire this capacity, students need to have confidence, high motivation and positive attitudes toward their study (Liu & Zhang, 2007). Therefore, learner autonomy and motivation are important factors for successful teaching and learning.

Teaching materials play an important role in promoting communicative language use. There are three kinds of teaching materials: text-based, task-based, and realia. These can be textbooks, games, role plays, simulations, and task-based communication activities designed to support communicative language teaching. Different kinds of authentic objects can be used in a communicative language teaching class to support communicative activities, from language-based realia such as signs, magazines, and newspapers to graphic and visual sources such as maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts (Richards, 2001).

Children learn their first language subconsciously with relative ease and little if any stress. When all circumstances are normal, most children learn the basic structures and vocabulary of their first language within the first four years of their life. The language continues to develop through life in sophistication and complexity depending primarily on the child's eventual level of education and use of the language in question. Generally speaking, all people are successful in the acquisition of their first language, and their speech tends to be marked by the accent and regional expressions of the area where they grow up.

Although people are capable of learning any number of languages during their lifetime, many experience failure to different degrees in the process of learning other languages. Adults often complain that the target language (second/foreign language) is difficult to understand or pronounce. Anyone who has ever seriously attempted to master another language knows that it is a time consuming and challenging effort. Yet, research and experience demonstrate that the only area most negatively affected by a "late" onset of language study is pronunciation; in other words, a second language speaker can often be recognized by an accent caused by the characteristics of the first language phonology; few second language learners can ever "disguise" themselves as native speakers of the target language. This issue is of no concern, however, since there are so many distinctly different accents and even varieties of English itself throughout the world that all English speakers have an accent in someone else's ears.

If one considers language study to mean only the memorization of some vocabulary and sentence structures with "good" pronunciation, the entire effort is doomed to failure from the beginning. The study of another language is far more extensive than that. The reader should refer to Freeman and Freeman (2004) for a simply and clearly written explanation of the components of language which one needs to know in order to teach language.

In short, the linguistic components the learner and the teacher need to delve into are syntax (sentence structure), phonology (sound system), lexicon (vocabulary), semantics (meaning), and pragmatics (usage). Language is a complex whole, the mastery of which requires the learner's total commitment for life, especially if the standard sought is the educated native speaker. Language learning is a process which takes time under the best of circumstances, when the learner is motivated and has everything available to help him to reach his goals.

It is important to note that language learning is never a linguistic phenomenon only. It is affected by several sociolinguistic and psychological factors which are all intertwined in unique ways in the case of each learner. The learner's prior experience as a student in general and self-image specifically as a language learner will determine how the learning task is viewed, whether it, for example, will seem impossible or doable. The person's prior knowledge, attitudes, personality, learning styles and skills and motivation, to mention a few, are all factors related to the eventual outcome of the language study. (For a comprehensive overview of the process of second language acquisition, see Brown 2004.) The most critical element, however, which appears to determine the relative failure or success of language acquisition, is the learning environment itself.

Languages are taught and learned in various places, some in informal settings, others in formal contexts, such as classrooms. It is common knowledge that regardless of the method used, second language learners achieve mastery of the target language to varying degrees. Although 10 individuals may be in the same language class for a year, their eventual proficiency level and profile will be different from one another.

This is the result of a combination of the factors briefly mentioned above, compounded with the pedagogical methods that the learner has encountered. Generally speaking, it can

be stated that most individuals learn to communicate basic information through a conversation in the target language in the first few years of active language study (provided that there are opportunities to use the language to create personal meaning). It is important to note that mere exposure or contact with the target language in most cases is not sufficient to result in productive language skills.

Second language development follows a developmental process, which resembles that of the first language. Yet, adults, unlike children, are often more critical of themselves and have fears, which children do not experience. Adult learners are also more affected by the type of language input they experience and often control its quantity and quality, meaning that they can either "tune out" the language if so desired, or they can seek opportunities to speed up the learning process. Adult learning is a relatively conscious process.

Most language learners seem to be able to articulate whether they are "good" at learning languages or not, whether they seem to enjoy it or not, and whether they want to pursue it or not. Since adults have cognitive tools available to them which they use to study other subjects in general, these same study skills can assist them in identifying personally effective and meaningful learning routes to second language acquisition.

Cummins (1988) in his classic work has separated language skills into two major categories of proficiency. Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) typically requires a few years to develop. This means that the language learner is able to converse about every day affairs and often appears to be a competent user of the language, being fluent and able to respond to most concrete stimuli. However, according to Cummins,

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), the ability which allows the learner to discuss and study conceptual, academic, material in the second language takes several years

longer, being the result of years of extended study in the target language. In other words, although a person may be perfectly capable of carrying on a conversation in the target language, that same individual may not be equipped with the skills needed to study abstract concepts in the same language. That requires academic knowledge of complex sentence structures, understanding of the written and spoken rhetoric of the language, and possession of a sophisticated fine-tuned vocabulary. This level of language proficiency is attainable only through directed academic study and, therefore, can be achieved only through hard work, native speakers included.

Working adults often have the need to acquire new knowledge as quickly as possible; yet, language places its own timetable on the learner and tends not to respond to "cramming." Language requires its own time, for the learning of a language is, indeed, a process. The process can be speeded up by intensive language courses in those cases where the focus is solely on the systematic study of language for several hours each day. Students who, for example, have the opportunity to attend intensive language courses may be able to advance sooner and take greater leaps of advancement than those who lack the time or the resources to do the same.

No matter how seconds are languages studied, the instructional context – whether formal or informal – must contain certain key components to foster success. Van Lier (1996) notes that language learning efficiency is enhanced by the learner's own understanding of what he is doing and why (awareness), being able to make some personal decisions about the process (autonomy), and being introduced to materials which are relevant, meaningful and practical (authenticity). The learner, in other words, must be mentally present in the learning situation and must have some desire to put forth the effort towards acquiring another language.

Krashen (1988) for the last two decades has emphasized the role of "comprehensible input" in language teaching (see summary of his complete updated theory in Krashen 2003). This means that the instructor must create learning situations which are not too difficult for the student. The language material should be appropriately and developmentally sequenced so that it is slightly above the learner's current level of mastery. Swain (1993) believes that in addition to comprehensible input, "meaningful output" cannot be underestimated: the learner must actively participate in the production of the language. The learner must engage in the language, solve problems with it, create one's own ideas in "home-made" sentences, and negotiate meaning in the target language; in other words, passive listening or note-taking of someone else's language use will never result in proficiency in the production of the language.

In short, interaction in the language is needed in order for the learner to communicate personal meaning in the target language (Cummins and Swain 1986). Language practice which takes place in relevant context will then result in the acquisition of the language. In other words, the learner will not only learn about the language but he will learn to use the language. Knowing about the language and knowing the language are not always synonymous.

The other crucial components of any organized language program are the methods and materials used to enhance students' learning experiences. There is no one correct way to teach language nor is there any one text or computer program which will suffice in its entirety. Since teaching must be based on the students' needs and diagnosed levels of ability, the instructor is in the key position to determine what the students should learn and how they should be taught. All this, however, must be encased in the identified goals of the program itself. The entrance requirements must match the abilities of the admitted students. The exit exams should test whether the program was successful

in delivering its content or not. What happens during the course must be tailored to meet realistic and locally appropriate program goals. These decisions should be made together with selected experts in language teaching pedagogy and the local aviation authorities. Both groups together can determine the most efficient and practical ways to create a well-informed and grounded language program, one in which the students can thrive while they develop their second language skills.

Learning should be a pleasant experience for the students as well as the instructors. The International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) standard focuses specifically on aviators´ ability to speak and understand English in the aviation context. In terms of instruction, this implies that the focus be placed on the practice of speaking and listening. In other words, to learn to speak one must speak. To learn to listen, one must engage in listening exercises. There is no other short cut to developing either skill. The ICAO expectation is that pilots and controllers have sufficient ability to express themselves in English and to communicate clearly enough with others on the same radio frequency. This does not require the ability to give speeches or read classic literature in the language. It does not require familiarity with the popular culture nor does it assume linguistic skill to be graceful in social situations. What the standard does mean is that the language user has sufficient language facility in the work context to respond to various situations when the predetermined phraseology is not enough. The point is to be able to ask and answer questions, paraphrase and clarify information, and modify one´s speech so that the message is as clear as possible. And, this is a goal that is quite achievable for most any dedicated professional who sees language as one tool among others, all of which have been designed to promote safety in the flight environment.

Bibliography

Abdel-Rahman, A. (2009). Attitudes of Jordanian College Students towards Learning English as a Foreign Language. College Student Journal, 43(2). Retrieved January 3, 2012, from http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/detail?sid=15742565-cba2-42ba-b431

Adjemian, Christian.(1976). On the nature of interlanguage systems. Language learning**.**

Al-Mahrooqi, R. and Denman C. (eds.) (2015). Issues in English Education in the Arab World. Cambridge Publishing.

Al Rabai, A.A. (2014) Teaching English in the Arab World: A Future in Turmoil Scientific & Academic Publishing.

Armstrong, David G. (1977). Team Teaching and Academic Achievement. Review of Educational Research. Volume: 47 issue: 1, page(s): 65-86.

Asher, J. & Price, B. (1967). The learning strategy of the total physical response: Some age differences. Childhood development, 38, 1219-1227.

Eun, Barohny, and Lim, Hye-Soon. (2009). A Sociocultural View of Language Learning: The Importance of Meaning-Based Instruction. TESL Canada Journal, Volume 27, Issue 1, 2009.

Backman, N. (1976). Two measures of affective factors as they relate to progress in adult second language learning. Working Papers on Bilingualism, 10, 100-122.

Bailey, K.M. and Damerow, R.M. (2014). Teaching and Learning English in the Arabic-Speaking World (Global Research on Teaching and Learning English). Routledge.

Bassano, S. & M. Christison. (1988). Cooperative learning. TESOL Newsletter, Vol. XXII, 2.

Bard, B Sachs JS.1977. Language Acquisition Patterns in Two Normal Children of Deaf Parents. ERIC

Baurain, B. (2007). Christian Witness and Respect for Persons, Journal of Language, Identity & Education, 6:3, 201-219, available at:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15348450701454221.

Byram, M., Morgan, C. and Colleagues (1994). Teaching-and-learning language-and-culture. Multilingual Matters No. 100.

Bejarano, y. (1987). A cooperative small-group methodology in the language classroom.TESOL Quarterly, 27, 483-504.

Bentahila, A., & Davies, E. (1989). Culture and language use: A problem for foreign language teaching. International Review of Applied Linguistic in Language Teaching, 27, 99-112.

Bentahila, A and Davies, E. (2009). Culture and Language Use: A Problem For Foreign Language Teaching. Published Online: 2009-11-27 | DOI: https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1989.27.2.99

Berlin, B., Kay, P. (1969) Basic Color Terms. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Bialystok, E. (1978). A theoretical model of second language learning. Language Learning, 28, 69–83.

Bialystok, E. (1985). The compatibility of teaching and learning strategies. Applied Linguistics, 6, 255–262.

Bialystok, E. and M. Shanvood Smith. (1985). Interlanguage is not a state of mind: an evaluation of the construct for second language acquisition. Applied Linguistics 6: 101-17.

Bickerton, Derek (1983), Creole Languages, Scientific American, 249 (8): 116–122, doi:10.1038/scientificamerican0783-116.

Birdson, David. (1999). Second Language Acquisition and the critical period hypothesis. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers Mahwah, New Jersey London

Bochner, Arthur P. (2007). Notes toward an ethics of memory in autoethnographic inquiry. In Norman K. Denzin & Michael D. Giardina (Eds.), Ethical futures in qualitative research (pp.196-208). Walnut Creek, Ca.: Left Coast Press.

Bongaerts, Theo. (1999). Ultimate attainment of foreign language pronunciation: The Case of very advanced late language learners. In David Birdsong (ed.) Second language acquisition and the critical period hypothesis. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. 133-159.

Bowerman, M. and Levinson, S.C. (Eds). (2001) Language acquisition and conceptual development. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Breen, M.P. (1987). Learner contributions to task design. In Candlin, C.N. and Murphy, D.F. (eds.) (1987). Language Learning Tasks. pp.23-46 London: Prentice Hall.

Breen, M., & Candlin, C. N. (1980). The essentials of a communicative curriculum in language teaching. Applied Linguistics, 1(2), 89-112. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/I.2.89

Breen M.P. and A. Littlejohn. (2000). Classroom decision: Making negotiation and process syllabuses in practice. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Breen, M.P and A. Littlejohn. (2000). The practicalities of negotiation. In: Breen, M.P and A. Littlejohn (eds.) Classroom Decision-Making: negotiation and process syllabuses in practice.. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bright, J, McGregor, G (1970).Teaching English as a Second Language: Theory and Techniques for the secondary stage. London: Longman.

Brindley, G. (1986). The assessment of second language proficiency: issues and approaches, Adelaide. National Curriculum Resource Centre.

Brindley, G. (1991). Defining language ability: the criteria for criteria. In Anivan, S. (ed.) Current developments in language testing, Singapore, Regional Language Centre.

Brown, H.D. (1980). Principles and practices of language learning and teaching. Englewood Cliffs, N: Prentice Hall.

Brown, H. D. (1987). Principles of language learning and teaching. Englewood Cliffs, N.J. : Prentice-Hall.

Brown, H. D. (1989). A practical guide to language learning: A fifteen-week program of strategies for success. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Brown, H. D. (1991). Breaking the Language Barrier. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Brown, H. D. (1994). Principles of language learning and teaching. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Brown, D. H. (2000). Principles of language learning & teaching. (4th ed.). New York: Longman.

Brown, D. H. (2007a). “First language acquisition.” In:

Principles of Language learning and Teaching, 5th Edition, Pearson ELS pp 24-51.

Brown, H. D. (2007b). Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy (3rd ed.). USA: Sanfrancisco State University.

Brown, R. & Hanlon, C. (1970). Derivational complexity and order of acquisition in child speech. In Hayes, J. R. (ed.), Cognition and the development of language. New York: Wiley.

Byram, M., Morgan, C. and Colleagues (1994). Teaching-and-learning language-and-culture. Clevedon ; Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters.

Burke, Kenneth. (1935). Permanence and Change, an Anatomy of Purpose. New York: New Republic.

Burhan Ozfidan, Krisanna L. Machtmes and Husamettin Demir. Socio-cultural Factors in Second Language Learning: A Case Study of Adventurous Adult Language Learners. Downloaded from internet.

Hart, B., & Risley, T. R. (1995). Meaningful differences in the everyday experience of young American children. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Company.

Hsin, Chia-Lin. Language and Culture in Foreign Language Teaching. Newcastle University. www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/178899.pdf.

Canale, M and Swain. L. 1980 Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing." Applied linguistics. Linguistics 1: 1-47.

Cakir, Mustafa. Constructivist Approaches to Learning in Science and Their Implications for Science Pedagogy: A Literature. International Journal of Environmental & Science

Education Vol. 3, No. 4, October 2008, 193-206.

Choi, Y.H. and Lee, H.W. (2008). Current Trends and Issues in English Language Education in Asia. The Journal of Asia TEFL vol. 5, No.2, pp 1-34.

Chomsky, N. (1957). Syntactic Structures. Mouton: de gruyter.

Chomsky, N. (1957). A Review of Skinner's Verbal Behaviour, Language 35, 26-28.

Chomsky, N. (1975). The Logical Structure of Linguistic Theory, Plenum Press, New York.

Chomsky, N. (2006). Language and Mind (Third edition). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chomsky, N. (1960). Universal Grammar and Second Language Teaching.

Cohen, Andrew. (2011). Strategies in learning and using a second language (2nd ed.). Longman.

Cook, V. (1985). Chomsky's Universal Grammar and second language learning, Applied Linguistics, 6, 1-8, 1985 Web version

Cook, V. 1991. Second Language Learning and Language Teaching. London Edword Anold.

Cook, V. (1993). Linguistics and second language acquisition. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Cook, V. (2001). Second Language Learning and Teaching (3rd ed.). USA: Sanfrancisco State University.

Coppieter, R. (1987). Competence differences between native and near-native speakers. Language, 63, 544-573.

Corder, S.P. (1967). The Significance of Learner's Errors.

IRAL : International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching.

Crookes, G. & Schmidt, R.W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. Language Learning, 41(4), 469-511.

Crystal, D. (1997). English as a Global language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cununins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting education success for language minority students. In schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework. Los Angeles, California: Evaluation. Dissemination, and assessment center, California State University

Cummins, J. (1988). Second language with bilingual educational programs. In L. M. Beebe (Ed.), Issues in second language acquisition, Boston, NMA: Heinle & Heinle, 145-166.

Cummins, J. & Swain, M. (1986.) Bilingualism in education. New York: Longman.

Dahl, S. (2001). Culture and Transformation. London: ECE Publishing.

Dakowska, M. (2005, 2007). Teaching English as a Foreign Language. A Guide for Professionals. Warszawa: PWN.

Dewey, John. 1933. How We Think. Boston: D. C. Heath, 1933.

Dulay, H., & Burt, M (1973). Should we teach children syntax? Language Learning, M, 245-258.

Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1974). You can't learn without goofing: An analysis of children's second language errors. In Richards, J. (Ed.). Error analysis. London: Longman, 95-123.

Dulay, H.; Burt, M, & Krashen, S. (1982). Language two. New York: Oxford University Press.

Ekstrand, L. (1976a). Age and length of residence as variablesrelated to the adjustment of migrant children, with special reference to second language learning. In Nickle, G. (Ed.). Proceedings of the fourth International Congress of Applied Linguistics. Volume 3. Stuttgard: Hochshulverlag. Reprinted in Krashen, Scarcella & Long (Eds.). (1982).

Ellis, R. (1986). Understanding Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (1987). Second language acquisition in Context. London: Prentice-Hall International.

Ellis, R. (1997a). Explicit knowledge and second language pedagogy. In L. Van Lier and D. Corson □eds.). Encyclopedia of Language and Education Vol 6: Knowledge about Language. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic.

Ellis, R. (1997b). The empirical evaluation of language teaching materials. ELT Journal 51: 36–42

Ellis, R. (1994). The Study of Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2003). Task-based language learning and teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, Rod. (2009). Task-based language teaching: sorting out the misunderstandings. International Journal of Applied Linguistics, Vol. 19 No. 3.

Ethiopian National Agency (ENA) for UNESCO. (2001).The Development of Education: National Report of Ethiopia. (Final Version). International Bureau of Education.

Fatham, A. (!975a). The relationship between age and second language productive ability. Language learning, 25,245-253.

Fatharn, A. (1975b). Language background, age, and the order of acquisition of English structures. In Dulay, H. & Burt, M.K. (Eds.). On TESOL 75: New directions in second language learning, teaching and bilingual education. Washington DC: TESOL.

Fatharn, A., & Precup, L. (I983). Influence of age and setting on second language oral proficiency. In Bailey, M.; Long, M. & Peck, S. (Eds.). Second language acquisition studies. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Felix, S. (1984). Two problems of language acquisition: the relevance of grammatical studies in the theory of interlanguage. In Davis & Criper (Eds.). Interlanguage: Proceedings of the seminar in honour of Pit Corder. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press

Freeman, D. E., & Freeman, Y. S. (2004). Essential Linguistics: What You Need to Know to Teach Reading, ESL, Spelling, Phonics, and Grammar. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Frisby, A.W. (1957). Teaching English : notes and comments on teaching English overseas. London: Longmans,

Fromkin, V., Rodman, R. and Nina, H. (2011). An Introduction to Language. Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.

Gajadeera, S.R. (2002). English Language at the Crossroads. 9th International Conference on Sri Lanka Studies. November 2003, University of Ruhuna. Matara. Sri Lanka.

Gale, K.; McClay, D; Christie, M., & Harris, S. (1981). Academic achievement in the Milingimbi bilingual education program. TESOL Quarterly,l2, 297-314.

Gardner, R. C. (1979). Social psychological aspects of second language acquisition. In Giles, H.& St. Clair, R. (Eds.). Language and social psychology. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Gardner, R.C. (1980). On the validity of affective variables in second language: Conceptual, contextual, and statistical consideration. Language Learning, 30, 255-270.I

Gardner, R.C. (1983). Learning another language: A true social psychological experiment. Journal ofLanguage and Social Psychology._2, 219-240.

Gardner, R.C. (1985). Social psychology and language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation. London: Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R.C. (1988). The socio-educational model of second-language learning: Assumptions findings and issues. Language Learning. 38, 101-126.

Gardner, R.C. & Lambert, W.E. (1959). Motivational variables in second language acquisition. Canadian Journal of psychology, 13, 266-272.

Gardner, R.C., & Lambert, W.E. (1972). Attitudes and motivation in second language learning. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Gardner, R.C.; Clement, R.; Smythe, P.C. & Smythe, C.L. (1979). The attitude/motivation test battery-revised manual (Research Bulletin No. 15). London: University of Western Ontario, Language Research Group.

Garton, Alison F. and Pratt, Chris (1998). Learning to be Literate: The Development of Spoken and Written Language, (2nd Edition) Wiley-Blackwell.

Gass, S.M. (1989). Language universals and second language acquisition. Language Learning. 39(4), 497-534.

Gass, S.M., & Schachter, J. (Eds.). (1989). Linguistic perspectives on second language acquisition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Genesee, F. (1988). Neuropsychology and second language acquisition. In Beebe, L.M. (Ed.). Issues in second language acquisition: Multiple perspectives. Cambridge, MA: Newbury House.

Gil, Jeffrey. (2008). China's English Language Environment. English language teaching. Vol. 1. No. 1, June 2008.

Gregg, K.R. (1989). Second language acquisition theory: The case for a generative perspective. In Gass, S.M. & Schachter, J. Linguistic perspectives on second language acquisition. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Gumperz, John J. and Levinson, Stephen C. (1996). In J. Gumperz & S. Levinson (eds.), Rethinking Linguistic Relativity. Cambridge University Press. pp. 1-18 (1996).

Gunasekara, M. (2005). The post-colonial identity of Sri Lankan English. Colombo, Sri Lanka.

Gunawardana, Anoma and Karunarathna, Buddhima. (2017). Teacher Research: Remedy for Failures in English Language Teaching in Sri Lanka. International Conference of Sabaragamuwa University of Sri Lanka 2017, Sri Lanka.

Hacker, Douglas J., John Dunlosky and Arthur C. Graesser (Eds.). (2009). Handbook of Metacognition in Education,

Hall, J. K. (2002) Teaching and Researching Language and Culture. London Pearson Education.

Halliday, M . A. K. (1985). An introduction to functional grammar. London: Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1986). Learning how to mean: Explorations in the development of language. London, Edward Arnold.

Hatch, E. (1983a). Psycholinguistics: A second language perspective. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Henmann, G. (1980). Attitudes and success in children's learning of English as a second language: The motivational versus the resultative hypothesis. English Language Teaching Journal, 34, 247-254.

Hertzler J. 0. (1953). Toward a Sociology of Language, Social Forces, XXXII (December, 1953) pp. 109-119.

Heugh, K., Benson, C., Bogale, B. and Alemu, M.(2007). Final Report Study on Medium of Instruction in Primary Schools in Ethiopia. Commissioned by the Ministry of Education September to December 2006

Horton, Paul B. and Hunt Chester L. 2005. Social Science (sixth edition). McGraw-Hill.

Hockett C.F. (1958). A Course in Modern Linguistics. The Macmillan Company: New York.

Hockett C.F. (1960) The Origin of Speech. in Scientific American, 203, pp. 89–97.

Hoff, Erika . (2005). Language Development. Cengage Learning.

Hofstede, G. (1986) Cultural Differences in Teaching and Learning. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, Vol. 10, pp. 301-320

Huizinga, J. Homo Ludens (1950). A Study of the Play-Element in Culture. New York: Roy Publishers.

Howatt, A.P.R.(1984). History of English Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Jacobs, G. M., & Hall, S. (2002). Implementing cooperative learning. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice (pp. 52-58). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Hu, Z. (2001). Language contact and lexical borrowing of English and Chinese: A comprehensive study. Jinan: Shandong University Press.

Jiang, Y. (2003). English as a Chinese language. English Today, 19, 3-8.

Johnson, J.S. & Newport, E.L. (1989). Critical period effects in second language learning: The influence of maturational state on the acquisition of English as a second language. Cognitive Psychology, 21, 60-99.

Johnston M. (1987). The effect of the learner's LI on variational features in a Multidimensional model of L2 acquisition. See Pienemann, M. & Johnston. M. (1987).

Jordan, G. (2004). Theory construction in second language acquisition. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Kachru, B (1986) The Alchemy of English: The Spread, functions and models of non-native Englishes. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Kachru, B. B. (1992). Teaching World Englishes. In Kachru, B. B. (Ed.) The Other Tongue--English across Cultures 2nd ed. Urbana and Chicago University of Illinois Press.

Kandaih, T (1984) Kaduva: Power and the English language weapon in Sri Lanka. In P, Colin-Tome and A.Halpe (Eds) Honouring EFC Ludowyk. Colombo: Tisara Prakasakayo.

Karmani, S. (2005). Islam, English, and 9/11, Journal of Language, Identity & Education, 4:2, 157-172. Available at: http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15327701jlie0402_6

Karunakaran,T.(2012). *Sociocultural Factors and Bilingual Education in Jaffna.* Lamburt Academic Publishing, AV Akademikerverlag GmbH & Co. KG Heinrich-Böcking-Str. 6-8,66121, Saarbrücken, Germany.ISBN **:**

Karunaratne, I.M. (2009). Teaching of English. A.P.H. Publishing Corporation. New Delhi. Accessed from books. google.lk on 27 Sep 2011

Kashima, E. S. , & Kashima, Y. (1997). Practice of the self in conversations: Pronoun drop, sentence coproduction, and contextualization of the self. In K. Leung, Y. Kashima, U. Kim, & S. Yamaguchi (Eds.), Progress in Asian social psychology. (pp. 165-179). Singapore: Wiley.

Kashima, Emiko S. and Kashima, Yoshihisa. (1998). Culture and Language. The Case of Cultural Dimension sand Personal Pronoun Use. Journal Cross-cultural psychology, May 1, 1998.

Kay, P. and Regier, T. (2006) Language, thought, and color: Recent developments. Trends in Cognitive Sciences 10 (2), 51–54.

Kay, P. and Regier, T. (2009). Language, thought, and color: Whorf was half right. Trends in Cognitive Sciences. 2009 Oct;13(10).

Klein, W. (1986). Second language acquisition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Klein, W. (1990). A theory of language acquisition is not so easy. Studies in second language acquisition, 12(2), 219-231.

Kohonen, V. (1992). Experiential language learning: second language learning as cooperative learner education. In Nunan, D. (ed.), Collaborative language learning and teaching. Cambridge: CUP, 14 - 39.

Kohonen, V. (2001). Towards experiential foreign language education. In Kohonen, V., R. Jaatinen, P. Kaikkonen and J. Lehtovaara, Experiential learning in foreign language education. London: Pearson Education, 8-60.

Kolb, D. (1984). Experiential learning. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Fonte Schütz, Ricardo. (2012) Language acquisition – Language learning. 8 nov. (2012). Disponívelem:. Acessoem: set. 2013.

Singleton, David and Ryan, Lisa (2004). Language Acquisition: The Age Factor (Second edition). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Kramsch, Claire. 1993. Context and Culture in Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kramsch, C. 1994. "Foreign languages for a global age", ADFL Bulletin, 25(1), 5-12.

Kramsch, C. (1998a): language and Culture. Oxford university Press. New York.

Kramsch, C. (1998b) The Privilege of the Intercultural Speaker. IN Byram, M. & Fleming, M. (Eds.) Language Learning in Intercultural Perspective Approaches through Drama and Ethnography. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Kramsch, C. (2003) Teaching language along the cultural faultline. IN Lange, D. L. & Paige, R. M. (Eds.) Culture as the core: perspectives son culture in second language learning Greenwich, Connecticut Information age publishing

Krashen, S. D. (1981). Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning. Oxford: Pergamon.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. Pergamon Press Inc.

Krashen, S. D. (1987). Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. Prentice-Hall International.

Krashen, S. D. 1(988). Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning. Prentice-Hall International.

Krashen, S. (2003). Explorations in language acquisition and use. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Krashen, S.; Long, M. & Scarcella, R. (1979). Age, rate and eventual attainment in second language acquisition. TESOL Quarterly, 13, 573-582. Reprinted in Krashen, M.; Scarcella, R. & Long, M. (Eds.). (1982). Child-adult differences in second language acquisition. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Krashen, S.; Scarcella, R. & Long, M. (Eds.). (1982). Child-adult differences in second language acquisition. Rowley, Ma: Newbury House.

Kumagai, Yuri. (1994). The Effects of Culture on Language Learning and Ways of Communication: The Japanese Case. Master's Degree Project. University of Massachusetts Amherst.

Lado, Robert. (1957). Linguistics across cultures: applied linguistics for language teachers. Ann Arbor : University of Michigan Press.

Lantolf, J. P. (2006) Sociocultural theory and second language development: State-of-the-art. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28.

Lantolf, J., & Thorne, S. (2006). Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lambert, W. E., & Tucker, G. R. (1972).Bilingual education of children: The St. Lambert Experiment. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers,.

Lambert, Wallace E. (1977). The effects of bilingualism on the individual: Cognitive and socio-cultural consequences. Bilingualism: Psychological, social, and educational

implications, edited by Peter A. Hornby. New York: Academic Press. 15—27.

Lapiere, Richard T. and Farnsworth, Paul R. (1949).Social Psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company,

Larser and Freeman. (2011). Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching. (With M. Anderson). (Third Edition). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Latu, M. F. (1994). Factors affecting the learning of English as a second language macroskills among Tongan secondary students. Retrieved from http://ro.ecu.edu.au/theses/1110

Legaretta, D. (1979). The effects of program models on language acquisition by Spanish speaking children. TESOL Quarterly, 13, 521-534.

Lee, Jackie Fung-King. (2009). Perception of ELT among English Language Teachers in China. Educational Journal, vol. 37, Nos 1-2, Summer-Winter 2009, 137-154.

Lenneberg. E.H. (1967). Biological foundations of language. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Bowerman, M. Levinson, S.C. (2001). Language Acquisition and Conceptual Development Cambridge University Press.

Lewis, I. (2009). Education for Disabled People in Ethiopia and Rwanda: EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010. UNESCO.

Liddicoat, A. J. (2000). Teaching Languages for Intercultural Communication.

Liddicoat, A.J. (2002). Static and dynamic views of culture and intercultural language acquisition. Babel 36 (3), 4-11, 37.

Liddicoat, A.J., Papademetre, L., Scarino, A. & Kohler, M. (2003). Report on intercultural language learning. Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia

Liddicoat, A. J. (2005). Teaching languages for intercultural communication. In D. Cunningham & A. Hatoss (Eds.) An international perspective on language policies, practices and proficiencies (pp.201-214) Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes (FIPLV) & Editura Fundaţiei Academie AXIS: Bucharest.

Liddicoat, A. J., Tognini, R., Fishmann, V., Harbon, L., Kohler, M., McLaughlin, M., Scarino, A., & Dellit, J. (2005). Professional standards for teachers of Indonesian. (Report to DEST).

Karabinara, Selmaand Gulerb, Cansu Yunuslar. (2013). A Review of Intercultural Competence from Language Teachers' Perspective Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences Volume 70, 25 January 2013, Pages 1316-1328.

Littlewood, W. (1981). Communicative Language Teaching: An Introduction. Cambridge: Cambridge University

Press.

Liu, L. (2003). A New Perspective on the Goals of TEFL in China. The internet TESL Journal, IX(11).

Liu, M., & Zhang, L. (2007). Student perceptions of native and non-native English teachers' attitudes, teaching skills assessment and performance. Asian EFL Journal, 9(4), 157-166.

Lightbown, P.M. and Spada, N. (1999). How languages are learned. Oxford, OUP. Lightbown, P. M. and Spada, N. (2001 Factors affecting second language learning": In Candlin, C. N. and Mercer, N. (eds.) English language teaching in its social context. London, Routledge.

Lemetyinen, H. (2012). Language Acquisition Theory | Simply Psychology. [online] Simplypsychology.org. Available at: https://www.simplypsychology.org/language.html [Accessed 13 May 2017].

Lochana, M. and Deb, G. (2006). Task Based Teaching: Learning English without Tears. Retrieved February 14, 2009 from http://www.asian-efl- journal.com/Sept_06_ml&gd.php.

Long, M.H. (1985). A Role of Instruction in Second Language Acquisition: Task-based Language Teaching. In K. Hyltenstam & M. Pienemann (Eds.), Modelling and assessing second language acquisition , pp 77-99. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Long, M. H. (1993). Second language acquisition as a function of age, Research and methodological findings issues. In K. Hyltenstam & A. Viberg (Eds.), Progression and regression in language and (pp 1966-221). Cambridge: Cambridge University press.

Long, H.H. (1998). Focus on Form in Task-Based Language Teaching. University of Hawai'i Working Papers in ESL, Vol 16.No.2, Spring, pp35-49

Lyons, John. (1977). Semantics, Volume 1. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mackey, W. F. (1965). Language Teaching Analysis. London: Longman.

Major, R. (1987). Foreign accent: Recent research and theory. International Review of Applied Linguistics, 15, 185-202.

Malallah, S. (2000). English in an Arabic Environment: Current Attitudes to English among Kuwait University Students, International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 3:1, 19-43. Available at:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050008667698.

Malinowski, B. (1953). The Problem of Meaning in Primitive Languages, in: Ogden, C. K. and Richards, I. A. The Meaning of Meaning. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1953, pp. 296-337.

McLaughlin, B. (1984). Second Language Acquisition in Childhood. Hillsdale, N Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

McLaughlin, B. (1986). - in second language acquisition. Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual matters.

Mead, G. H. (1934). Mind, self and society. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Medin, Douglas L. and Ross Brian H. (1992). Cognitive Psychology. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College,

Mace J. (2002) The Give and Take of Writing: scribes, literacy and everyday life Leicester: NIACE

Moorjani, A. and Field, T. T. (1988). Semiotic and sociolinguistic paths to understanding culture. In A. J. Singerman, (Ed.), Toward a New Integration of Language and Culture. Middlebmy, V.T.: Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Language.

Morris, B.S.K. & Gerstman, L.J. (1986). Age contrasts in the learning of language relevant materials: Some challenges to critical period hypotheses. Language Learning, 36, 311-352.

Murat, M. (2000). Language learning strategies in foreign language learning and teaching. TESL Journal. Vol. 8. Naiman, N., M. Frohlich, H. Stern, and A. Todesco. 1978. The good language learner. Research in Education Series No 7. Toronto: The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Negash, T. (1990). The Crisis of Ethiopian Education: Some Implications for Nation Building, Sweden: Uppsalo University.

Neufeld, G. (1979). Towards a theory of language learning ability. Language Learning. 29, 227-241.

Nguyen, T. H. A. (2002). Cutural effects on learning and teaching English in Vietnam. The Language Teacher, 26(1).

Nguyen, Trang Thi Thuy (2017). Integrating Culture into Language Teaching and Learning: Learner Outcomes The Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal Volume 17, Number 1,

Nunan D. 1988. The learner-centred curriculum. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan D. (2003). Practical English Language Teaching. McGraw-Hill Education.

Olsen, L., & Sam els, S. (1973). The relationship between age and accuracy of foreign language pronunciation. Journal of Educational research, 66, 267-267. Reprinted in Krashen, M; Scarcella & Long, M (Eds.). (1982). Child-adult differences in second language acquisition. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Nuan, David. (1991). Language Teaching Methodology: A Text-book for Teachers. New York: Prentice Hall.

Nunan, David. (2007). What is This Thing Called Language? Palgrave Macmillan.

O'Malley, J. Michael, Chamot, Anna Uhl and Stewner Manzanares, Kupper, Gloria Lisa Russo, Rocco P. (1985). Learning Strategies Used by Beginning and Intermediate ESL Students March 1985 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1985.tb01013.x

O'Malley, J.M. Chamot, A.U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Kupper, L., and Russo, R.P. (198)5. Learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate. ESL students. Language Learning, 35:21-46.

O'Malley, J.M. and Chamot, A. (1990). Strategies used by Second Language Learners. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

O'Malley, J. M.; Chamot, A.U. and Carol Walker, C. (1987). 'Some Applications of Cognitive Theory to Second Language

Acquisition. Studies in Language Acquisition. Volume 9 , Issue 3 October 1987 , pp. 287-306.

Ormrod, J.E. (2000). Educational Psychology: Developing Learners (7th ed). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Merrill. Chapter 1, pages 1-23.

Oxford, R. (1985). A new taxonomy of second language learning strategies. Washington D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Oxford, R. (1990). Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know. Boston, M.A.: Heinle &Heinle.

Oxford, R. (1990). Language learning strategies: An Update. Online Resources: Digests.

Oxford, R. and Crookall, D. (1989). Research on language learning strategies: Methods, Findings, and instructional issues. Modern language Journal, 73.4-4-419.

Oyama, S. (1976). A sensitive period for the acquisition of a nonnative phonological system. Journal of Psycholinguistic Research 5 :261·283.

Patkowski, M. (1980). The sensitive period for the acquisition of syntax in a second language. Language Learning, 30, 449-472.

Patkowski, M. (1982). The sensitive period for the acquisition of syntax in a second language. In Krashen, S.D.; Scarcella, R.C. & long, M.H. (Eds.). Child-adult differences in second language acquisition. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Patkowski, M. (I 990). Age and accent in a second language: A reply to James Emil Flege. Applied Linguistics, ll. 73-89.

Pavlenko, A. and Lantolf, J. (2000) Second language learning as participation and the (re) construction of selves. In J. P. Lantolf (ed.) Sociocultural theory and second language learning. Oxford University Press, pp. 155-177.

Pinker, S. (1979). Formal models of language learning. Cognition, 7 (3), 217–283.

Pinker, S. (1984). Language Learnability and Language Development. Cambridge, MA: Harvard

University Press.

Pinker, S. (1990). Language acquisition. In D. N. Osherson & H. Lasnik (Eds.), An Invitation to Cognitive Science: Volume 1: Language (pp. 199–241). Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

Pinker, S. (1995). The language instinct: The new science of language and mind. Penguin London.

Pinker, S. (1999). Words and rules: The ingredients of language. New York: Harper Collins.

Pinker, S. (2003). Language as adaptation to the cognitive niche. In M. Christiansen, & S. Kirby (Eds.). Language Evolution: States of the art. New York: Oxford University Press.

Pinker, S. (2004). Clarifying the logical problem of language acquisition. Journal of Child Language 31, 945-953, Cambridge University Press.

Pinker, S.; Jakendoff, R. and Postal, P. M. (ed.) (2004). New York: Oxford University Press.

Rahim Uddin Choudhury. (2014). The Role of Culture in Teaching and Learning of English as a Foreign Language, Department of English, Jazan University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Express, an International Journal of Multi Disciplinary Research ISSN: 2348 – 2052, Vol. 1, Issue 4, April 2014. Available at: www.express□journal.com

Patkowski, M. (1980a). The sensitive period for the acquisition of syntax in a second language. Language Learning, 30, 449-472.

Patkowski, M. (1980b). A test of linguistic intuitions. In Proceedings from the 1980 Southern Illinois Language Testing Conference. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University

Patkowski, M. (1982). The sensitive period for the acquisition of syntax in a second language. In Krashen, S.D.; Scarcella, R.C. and Long, M.H. (Eds.). Child-adult differences in second language acquisition. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Patkowski, M. (I990). Age and accent in a second language: A reply to James Emil Flege. Applied Linguistics, ll. 73-89.

Pienemann, M., & Johnston, M. (1987). Factors influencing the development of language proficiency. In Nunan, D. (Ed.). Applying second language acquisition research. Adelaide: NCRC Research Series.

Quirk, R. (1985). The English language in a global context. In: English in the World: Teaching and learning the language and literature. Randolph Quirk and H.G. Widdowsaon (eds.) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Pp 1-6.

Rahman, T. (2005) The Muslim Response to English in South Asia: With Special Reference to Inequality, Intolerance, and Militancy in Pakistan, Journal of Language, Identity & Education, 4:2, 119-135. Available

Richards, Jack.C. (1985). Planning for proficiency. Prospect. 1.2.1-17.

Richards, J. C. (2001). Curriculum development in language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C. and Rodger, T.S. (1986). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis. Cambridge University Press.

Ringbom, H. (1987) The Role of the First Language in Foreign Language Learning. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Ringbom, H. (1986) Crosslinguistic Influence and the Foreign Language Learning Process. In Kellerman, E & Sharwood, M. (eds). Crosslinguistic Influence in Second Language Acquisition. New York: Pergamon Press.

Ringbom, H. (2001) Lexical Transfer in L3 Production. In Cenoz, J. et al., (eds) Crosslinguistic Influence in Third Language Acquisition: Psycholinguistic Perspectives. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Ringbom, H. (2006) The Importance of Different Types of Similarity in Transfer Studies. In Arabski, J. (ed) Cross-linguistic Influences in the Second Language Lexicon. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Rivers, W. M. (1978). A practical guide to the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. New York: Oxford University Press.

Rivers, W. (1981). Teaching Foreign Language Skills. (Second edition). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Rogoff, B. (1990). Apprenticeship in Thinking. Cognitive Development in Social Context. New York: Oxford University Press.

Rose, H. (2015). Researching language learning strategies. In Paltridge, Brian; Phakiti, Aek. Research methods in applied linguistics. Bloomsbury.

Rosenshine, B., & Meister, C. (1997). Cognitive strategy instruction in reading. In S. A. Stahl & D. A. Hayes (Eds.), Instructional models in reading (pp. 85-107). Hillsdale, NJ, US: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Rubin, J. (1975). What the good language learner can teach us. TESOL Quarterly, 9,41-51.

Rubin, J and Thompson, I. (1982). How to be a more successful language learner. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

Rubin, J. (1987). Learner strategies: Theoretical assumption, research history and typology. In A.L. Wenden and J. Rubin (eds.), Learner strategies in language learning, 15-30. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Ryan, P.M. (1995). Foreign Language Teachers' Perceptions of Culture and the Classroom: A Case Study. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED385135).

Savignon, S. (1972) Communicative competence: An experiment in foreign language teaching. Philadelphia P.A. Centre for curriculum Development.

Savignon. S. (1983) Communicative competence. Theory and practice. Text and context in second language learning. Addison, Wesley publishing company, Mass.

Scarino, Angela and Liddicoat, Anthony J. (2009). Teaching and Learning Languages: A Guide. Language, Culture and Learning. Australian Government, Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations.

Schachtel, Ernst. (1949). On Memory and Childhood Amnesia, in: Mullahy, P. (ed.), A Study of Inter-personal Relations. New York: Heritage Press.

Schmid, E. (1986). A comparative study of children's and adults' acquisition of tone accents in English. Language Learning, 36, 185-210.

Schumann, J. (1975) Affective factors and the problem of age in second language acquisition. Language Learning 25: 209-235.

Schumann, J.H. (1978a). The pidginization process: A model for second language acquisition. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Schumann, J.H. (1978b). The relationship of pidginization, creolization and decreolization to second language acquisition. Language Iuisition, 28, 367-380.

Schumann, J.H. (1986). Research on the acculturation model for second language acquisition. Journal of multilingual and multicultural development,_l, 379-392.

Scovel, T. (1988). A time to speak: A psycholinguistic inquiry into the critical period for human speech. Cambridge, MA: Newbury House.

Selinker, L. (1972). lnterlanguage. lRAL, 1Q(3), 209-23 I.

Senior, Rose M. (2006). The Experience of Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Shohomy, E. (2006). Language Policy: Hidden Agenda and New Approaches. London/New York: Routledge.

Shohamy, E. (2007). Language Tests as Language Policy Tools. Assessment in Education, 2007, 14, 1, 117–30.

Simpson, C. (1997). Culture and foreign language teaching. Language Learning Journal. March 1997, No. 15. 40-43.

Sharwood Smith, M. (1981). Consciousness-raising and the second language learner. Applied Linguistics 2:159-68.

Sharwood Smith, M. (1986). Comprehension versus acquisition: two ways of processing input. Applied Linguistics 7: 239-56.

Singleton, D. (1989). Language acquisition: The age factor. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Singleton, David Michael and Ryan, Lisa. (2004). Language Acquisition: The Age Factor Multilingual Matters.

Skehan, P. (1998). A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning by Peter Skehan. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Snow, C. (1983). Age differences in second language acquisition: Research finding and folk psychology. In Bailey, K.; Long, M.; Peck, S. (Eds.). Second language acquisition studies. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Snow, C.E. (1987). Relevance of the notion of a critical period to language acquisition. In Bernstein, M. (Ed.). Sensitive periods in development: An interdisciplinary perspective. Hillsdale, Nj: Erlbaum.

Snow, C. & Hoefgnagel-Hohle, M. (1977). Age differences in the pronunciation of foreign sounds. Language and Speech, 20, 357-365.

Spolsky, B. (1989). Conditions for second language learning. Oxford: Oxford University Press

Stern, H. H. (1983). Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stern, H. H. (1992). Issues and Options in Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Strong, B. (1984). Integrative motivation: Cause or effect of successful second language learning. Language Learning, 34, 1-14.

Svalberg, Agneta (2007). Language awareness and language learning Language Teaching, 40.04:287 308.

Samarakkody, M. (2000). Motivation and the acquisition of English in Sri Lanka: A linguistic and social psychological study. In Hayes D, (Ed) Teaching English: Possibilities and opportunities. Colombo: British Council Sri Lanka.

Swain, M. (1993). The output hypothesis: Just speaking and writing aren't enough. The Canadian Modern Language Review 50, 158-164.

Swain, Merrill and Lapkin, Sharon (2002). Talking it through: two French immersion learners' response to reformulation. International Journal of Educational Research 37 (2002) 285–304.

Tahta, S., Wood, M., & Loewenthal, K. (1981). Foreign accents: Factors relating to transfer of accent from the first to a second language. Language and Speech. 24, 265-272.

Tarone, E. (1979). Interlanguage as chameleon. Language Learning, 29, 181-191.

Tarone, E. (1983). On the variability of interlanguage systems. Applied Linguistics, 4, 142-163.

Tarone, E. (2013). Interlanguage. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell Publishers.

Teka, M.(2009). Evaluatioin of Implementation of the 'Paradigm Shift" in EFL Teacher Education in Ethiopia .Ph D. Dissertation, AAU, Depart of English Languages and Literature. Unpublished.

Templer, B. (2003). Teaching the Language of the Conqueror. Z Magazine Online. Retrieved from http://www.zcommunications.org/teaching-the-language-of-the-conqueror-by-bill-templer.

UNESCO (2007). International Bureau of Education. Regional Seminar" Poverty Alleviation, HIV AIDS Education and Inclusive education: Priority Issues for Inclusive Quality Education in Eastern and Western Sub-Saharan Africa" .Nairobi, Kenya, 23-27 July.

www.ibe.unesco.org/.../Inclusive_Education/.../ethiopia_inclusion_

Van Lier, L. (1996). Interaction in the language classroom. London: Longman.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes (Cole, M., John-Steiner, V., Scribner, S. & Souberman, E., Eds.) Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). Thought and Language. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1987). Thinking and Speech. In R. W. Rieber, & A. S. Carton (Eds.), The Collected Works of L. S. Vygotsky (Vol. 1), Problems of General Psychology (pp. 39-285). New York: Plenum Press. (Original Work Published 1934)

Wallace, S. (2009). Managing behaviour in the lifelong learning sector (2nd ed.) Exeter: Learning Matters.

Ware, Paige D. and Kramsch, Claire. (2005). Toward an Intercultural Stance: Teaching German and English through Telecollaboration. Modern Language Journal,

Wenden, Anita and Rubin, Joan (eds.). (1987). Learner strategies in Language Learning. Prentice/Hall International.

Whorf, Benjamin L. (1956). Language, Thought and Reality, in: Selected Writings of Beniamin Lee Wharf. Cambridge: Technology Press of M. I. T.

Widdowson, R.G. (1978)Teaching language as communication. Oxford university press.

Wierzbicka, A. (1985). Different Cultures, Different Languages, Different Speech Act Journal of Pragmatics 9, 145-178.

Wierzbicka, A. (1986). Does language reflect culture? Evidence from Australian English Language in Society, 15, 349-373.

Willems, G. M. (1996) Foreign language study for intercultural communication Multicultural Teaching 14.3, 36-40.

Wu, Y. (2001). English language teaching in China: Trends and challenges. TESOL Quarterly, 35(1), 191–194.

Xerri, Daniel (2016). Teaching and learning English in a multicultural classroom: strategies and opportunities, Journal

for Multicultural Education, Vol. 10 Issue: 1, pp.19-32, https://doi.org/10.1108/JME-04-2015-001

Yeoman, B. (2002). The stealth crusade. Mother Jones. Retrieved from:http://www.motherjones.com/magazine/MJ02/stealth.html

Yigzaw, A., (2005). Effects of Teacher Mediation on Student Conceptions and Approaches. Ph. D.Thesis. Addis Ababa University. Unpublished.

Yu, L. (2001). Communicative language teaching in China: Progress and resistance. TESOL Quarterly, 35(1), 194–198.